The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 26, 1896.

The Week.

POPULIST ALLEN took a pretty accurate measure of Warrior Sherman on Monday, when he said that the Ohio Senator, he guessed, thought the time had about come for him to make his usual retreat. Mr. Sherman in fact made it with much muttering and scowling, but he made it, and those terribly urgent belligerency resolutions which a month ago must pass instantly and without a word of debate, are all tied up again and as far from passing as ever. The net result up to date is a fresh shock to business, further discrediting of Congress, and special humiliation for the Foreign Relations Committee, and Mr. Sherman in particular, but not the slightest benefit to the struggling Cubans. The struggling Cubans, in fact, have cut no figure in the whole debate. The resolutions have been from the first solely for the benefit of struggling Congressmen. Their determination not to let one of their number get more glory out of it than another has been all along as obvious as it has been heroic, and Monday's bids for fame by Senators Mills and Platt let us into the secret of the whole scramble. Lord Rosebery in a speech the other day gave a definition of the function of the Cabinet, as made by Sir George C. Lewis in a letter to the Prince Consort. Sir George said: "I find the Cabinet to be an institution intended to prevent individual Ministers from immortalizing themselves at the expense of the country." Our Senate, our foreign-affairs committees, have been such institutions. But they are now designed rather to promote a free-for-all race for immortality precisely at the expense of the country. Each man tries to out-roar the other; and as for Cuba or our own country, why, they may go hang themselves along with common sense and law.

Senator Sherman cannot ope his mouth on the Cuban business but out there flies a blunder. The ignorance, for a chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, he had before displayed, was surpassed on Thursday last. He roundly asserted that the Cubans had but one representative in the Spanish Cortes. Thereupon Senator Hale offered to show him a list of the members of the last Cortes, in which figured the names of forty-five Deputies from Cuba and Porto Rico, together with those of fourteen Senators. Anyhow, affirmed the Ohio Senator, waiving that point, the Spaniards did not keep the promises they made at the close of the last insurrection, and here is a letter from Martinez Campos himself to prove it. But the letter itself, when read, spoke of "promises never fulfilled" as having given "rise to the insurrection of Yara." Evidently Senator Sherman had not the remotest idea what the insurrection of Yara was. It was the beginning of the former rebellion in 1868. Martinez Campos, therefore, was alluding to a condition of things before that date, and innocent Mr. Sherman made him refer to events subsequent to 1878. We are ashamed of the insurgent agents for not having coached Senator Sherman more carefully. His frequent and ostentatious blunders are hurting their cause. We cannot say that anything of the kind can hurt him, for Senator Hoar, at the very moment of exposing him, paid a tribute to him as "the most illustrious political figure on this continent."

Senator Gray's preference for the Senate Cuban resolutions over those of the House, is hard to understand. He has defended them as more "courteous" and "respectful" than those passed by the House. Now, the fact is that the Senate resolutions, in the only points in which they differ from those of the House, are more studiously offensive. They affirm that "the friendly offices of the United States should be offered by the President to the Spanish Government for the recognition of the independence of Cuba." Speaking to that very point in the House, Mr. Hitt said:

> "Every gentleman, on hearing that suggestion made or that proposition presented to him, must think in a moment what would be the response if a proposition were made to our Government, for example, by the British Minister, presenting resolutions adopted by the British Parliament asking and desiring us to consent at once to the independence of Texas, of Florida, or of Michigan. How long would he remain in Washington after presenting such a proposition as that—after the self-respect of our Government had been thus insulted? I think, gentlemen, you will agree with me that the proposition of our committee is one far more prudent and likely to be far more effective."

The House resolutions limited themselves to offering "friendly influence" to secure "a government by the choice of the people of Cuba." Resolution for resolution and insult for insult, we do not see much to choose between the two. Both are gratuitous and dangerous meddling with something with which Congress has nothing to do, and for passing upon which it has, as the debate has shown, neither the knowledge nor the fit temper.

It is impossible to say how much importance is to be attached to the meeting between the free-coinage Republican Senators and certain Pennsylvania manufacturers which took place at Washington on Friday, but obviously it must tend to confirm the free-coinage Senators in their determination to resist any tariff legislation that is not accompanied by legislation in the interest of silver-miners. It is safe to conclude, also, that the meeting would not have taken place at all without a definite purpose. Probably the purpose is to bring a pressure upon the coming St. Louis convention to adopt a free-silver platform, and, failing in that, to nominate a candidate for the Presidency who will attract the votes of the Populists, and the silver contingent of both the other parties. The name of J. Donald Cameron was suggested for such nomination. If the movement goes so far, it cannot be denied that Cameron is the man to head it. He is a silver-man of the most pronounced and fanatical type. He is also a politician of long experience, and he has sufficient reputation in the country at large to make a good run if any straight-out silver-man can. In short, if there is to be a Republican secession, Cameron is the most formidable leader that could be found. There is a disposition among the Republican leaders to make light of the meeting, but a movement which can count the electoral votes of several States as almost certain at the start, is not a negligible quantity.

At all events, a double-meaning platform will no longer suffice. It will be repudiated by the silver wing of the party and by the gold wing as well. The Ohio deliverance, penned by McKinley himself the other day, has met almost unanimous disapproval in the East. The Republican press in general has repudiated it, and declared that it will not answer the purpose in this campaign, however well it may have served in former ones. The truth is, that the Eastern Republicans are just as tired of humbug and uncertainty on the money question as the constituents of Senators Teller and Carter are. They are in no better mood for a compromise than the latter; and even if their leaders were, it would be unsafe to risk the vote of their States on an uncertain platform. New York in particular is in a shaky condition. There are so many local troubles here that any serious misstep regarding the financial question would take the State out of the Republican column if the Democrats offered anything better. Will they do so? Looking merely at the elections of 1894 and 1895, the Democratic party is already beaten. Still, it has "a fighting chance." If it takes an unequivocal position for sound money—if it declares, for example, that, in the absence of an international bimetallic agreement, it favors the maintenance of the gold standard by the United States—and if it nominates a candidate for the Presidency who is as sound as the platform, it may yet carry the election.

It is a serious misfortune to the Republican party that at the present time the

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two great forces at work to capture its Presidential nomination are the bosses and the high-tariff interests. Quay and Platt are working to control the nomination in the interest of machine politics. They hope to set up in Washington the boss government which they are conducting in Pennsylvania and New York. The high-tariff interests are hoping in a somewhat similar way to put McKinley in the White House, and thus set up a high-tariff government for their personal benefit. As Senator Chandler says, they paid off McKinley's debts when he failed in business, and he is under great obligations for that. If now they can pay all the political expense of his nomination and election, they will put him under fresh obligations to such an extent that if he gets into the White House he will be more completely "their man" than any President we have ever had. That they are spending money freely for him, nobody who is familiar with political methods can doubt for a moment. His "boom" has all the marks of a boom with boodle behind it. It is making formidable progress, but not so formidable as appears, for there is a tremendous amount of "claiming" made in its behalf. If its chief opponents were not bosses of such odious character as Platt and Quay, there would be much less cause of anxiety about it. The real intelligence and character of the Republican party have not as yet taken a hand in the struggle, but it is high time they should if they are to exert much influence on the nomination.

The Boston *Transcript* thinks that "the chances of Mr. Reed's success as an aspirant for the Republican Presidential nomination will be greatly improved by Massachusetts Republicans speaking out in their approaching State convention boldly and unequivocally for sound money, as the term is understood by those who advocate the present gold standard," adding that "Massachusetts is the backbone of Reed's support in this section." We beg leave to ask if Reed's own backbone has not something to do with the question, and to suggest that, if it has, it is time that it be put in evidence. What is the use of a State convention "speaking out" in favor of any principle if the candidate in whose interest it "speaks" is himself silent? Does not the *Transcript* know that Mr. Reed is as dumb as an oyster when the silver question is mentioned to him, and that he does not hesitate to characterize as an impertinence any attempt to draw him out on the subject? Mr. McKinley deserves some credit for drafting the currency plank of his own State convention so that it can at least be characterized, if it can be characterized only as a wobble. But where does Mr. Reed stand? If he too is a wobbler, which way does he wobble most? It would be interesting to know this, but to know it from the Speaker himself, not by the mouth of the Massachusetts Republican convention.

In signing the Raines bill, Gov. Morton reviewed several objections to it of more or less weight, but he passed over the most serious one without any notice whatever. We have no doubt that, except among liquor-dealers, drinking men, and their allies, he will find pretty general acquiescence in his approval of the restrictions the bill places on the liquor traffic, even if it does gobble up so large a proportion of the revenue derived from the liquor tax in cities. But he makes the value of the bill to depend on its being "fairly worked out by competent and faithful officers," and does not say one word as to the mode in which "these competent and faithful officers" are to be provided. This, however, is the point on which the bill has excited the opposition of the friends of good government in this State, and it is this mode which is destined to work its failure, if fail it does, and in failing, to spoil the Governor's fair fame. We do not think we exaggerate or distort, when we say that the bill makes the best provision that can be made by legislation, for the infidelity and incompetency of the officers who are to execute it; for it provides that the places of all the sixty special agents shall be deemed "confidential," and, therefore, shall not be filled by competitive examination under the civil-service regulations. Governor Morton must not suppose that the public do not draw inferences as to what this means. It means, in their belief, that these appointments shall be made for political reasons, without regard to fitness, and, therefore, shall be made on the suggestion or by the designation of Thomas C. Platt, for the strengthening of his machine, which already has excited so much alarm and anxiety.

The new corrupt-practice law which has just been enacted in Ohio, makes the tenth thus far put on our statute-books. The other nine States having such laws are New York, Massachusetts, Colorado, California, Missouri, Michigan, Minnesota, Indiana, and Kansas. Of these, the most comprehensive and rigorous are the statutes of California, Missouri, and Minnesota. The others are half-way measures, of varying degrees of usefulness, whose chief effect is to compel a certain amount of publicity in campaign expenditures. The Ohio law is modelled substantially upon the Missouri and Minnesota law, placing limits to the expenditure which candidates may make, the maximum amounts depending upon the size of the electorate, as follows: One hundred dollars for 5,000 voters; $1.50 for every 100 voters above 5,000 and under 25,000, and $1 for every 100 voters above 25,000 and under 50,000. Any expenditure in excess of such amount is unlawful, and makes void the election of the violator of the law. All candidates and committees and agents are required to make sworn itemized returns after election of all money received and spent, under penalty of $1,000 fine. The law is an excellent one, but, like all similar laws, it will depend for its enforcement upon public sentiment. None of the laws of the kind at present nominally in force are executed with much rigor. The California law is practically a dead letter, and the Missouri law, while somewhat better observed, is still not pressed as it should be.

The call which was published on Friday, for a conference to promote the establishment of a permanent system of arbitration between this country and Great Britain, may fairly be considered the most wholesome movement of the present year or of any recent year in our history. We can think of nothing better calculated to restore confidence to the business community and sobriety to the field of politics than this projected meeting. The first name in the list of signers of the call is that of the Chief Justice of the United States, the second is that of the General of the Army, and the third is that of the ranking Admiral of the Navy. The other signers will be recognized as among the foremost citizens of the land. The list would have been much larger undoubtedly if there had been more time to circulate it, but it is large enough for the purpose of showing that the intelligent, thoughtful, and God-fearing people of the United States are most desirous of having practical steps taken now to put the relations of this country and Great Britain on a basis where they will not be exposed to war and war's alarms in sudden and unexpected ways. Arbitration may not be suited to every possible case of difference between nations, although it is most desirable that it should be. The great advantage of it is that it stands in all cases as a buffer between hot heads, and prevents a nation from plunging into war headlong. It interposes a period of discussion and reflection. There is good reason to believe that both countries are now in a mood to enter seriously upon the negotiation of such a treaty as is proposed in this call, and there is little doubt that the conference itself will be worthy of the exalted intentions of its promoters.

The social level of American Salvation, as it is to be fought for by Ballington Booth's new organization, continues to be lifted slightly nearly every day. The uniform which the leaders designed for the lassies has been changed in order that it may be more becoming to the wearers. It was to be brown in color, but it will be cadet blue, since brown is not only a trying color to the complexion of most lassies, but spots easily and fades quickly. The new bonnet is thoroughly approved by the lassies. It has less poke than the old British Salvation bonnet, being much

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more natty, and giving the features of the wearer more publicity and the advantage of a more becoming surrounding. When its color and trimmings are made to conform to the cadet blue of the uniform, the happiness of the lassies will be complete. A change is proposed also in the name of the new army. Objections are made to bringing the name of the Deity into the title, and it will be amended probably from "God's American Volunteers" to simple "American Volunteers." When all arrangements are completed, the Volunteers will take the field against sin in a thoroughly genteel manner, offering quite a contrast to the noisy and rather vulgar British methods.

We do not think a better case for compulsory arbitration has ever occurred or is likely to occur than the trouble between Italy and Abyssinia. Abyssinia has undoubtedly "a doctrine" which excludes the Italians from making any settlement on that continent, and has been held firmly for over a century by the predecessors of King Menelek. Menelek does not seek to meddle in European affairs. He simply asks to be let alone, and that, if the Italians have a lawful colony on the coast, its boundaries shall not be enlarged. Every fact in the case will justify our asking the Italians to arbitrate or take the consequences. If it be asked what authority we exercise over Menelek, we answer, just as much as we exercise over the Spanish-American states. Menelek may dispute our sovereignty over him, and deny that our will is law in his part of the country; but so would Brazil, and Chili, and the Argentine Republic, and Mexico, which does not prevent our claiming the right to protect them against foreign aggression, and to supervise their treaties. Besides, Menelek's feelings should not hinder us in the least from calling the Italians to account for their treatment of him. It is with Italians we have to deal, because they are apparently stronger than Menelek, and it is a cardinal doctrine of American polity that in all disputes between weak states and strong ones, except ourselves, the strong state is surely in the wrong. We therefore strongly advise the appointment of a commission to find out the rights and wrongs of this matter, and then to stand by its judgment. We are perfectly aware of the responsibility we incur in giving such advice, but it does not frighten us. To the timorous souls who think this might get us into a war with Italy, and who ask, Are we ready for war? we say emphatically, There will be no war. To those also who are afraid of the effect of such a move on the stock market, we answer that there would be as much money made by private information as would be lost by the public news. But anyhow we do not think much of men who set their pockets before the glory the country would acquire by the assertion of her jurisdiction over another continent.

The news of the British advance up the Nile valley has created a great sensation in Europe, particularly among the French, who profess to believe that the reasons assigned for the advance by the British are a mere subterfuge, and that the true cause is to make a pretext for holding Egypt for a still longer period and more solidly. Mr. Curzon communicated to the House of Commons on Tuesday week the information on which the advance is based, and which consisted of reports of merchants, of refugees from Khartum, and of despatches from the British Consul at Suakim, announcing the appearance of the Dervishes within fifty miles of that place, and the proclamation of a holy war by the Mahdi's successor, who has on hand one of the biggest "doctrines" in the world. He makes out a fairly good case, but the political observer who treated the whole affair as a counter-stroke against France and Russia in retaliation for the Armenian fiasco and its British humiliation, would not be far wrong. If such it be, it is ably planned. It resuscitates Italy, and so far strengthens the Triple Alliance, fastens the British hold on Egypt and the Mediterranean more firmly, and warns Turkey that she would do well to find other friends than Russia. It helps to dissipate the queer belief, which doubtless led to the Kaiser's congratulations to Krüger, that England would not go to war. The Conservatives are evidently determined on a Jingo policy.

The humiliating position in which British diplomacy was left by the Armenian failure is of a sort that any ministry would be glad to obscure by some diversion. Mr. Curzon's statements in Parliament on March 3 confessed the full measure of the triumph of the Sultan. The Government accepted a motion trusting that "further endeavors will be made to ameliorate the lot of the Christian population in Asiatic Turkey," but Mr. Curzon distinctly warned the Commons that it must not be supposed possible that such endeavors would be made "by force of arms." He deprecated the habit of speaking of the Armenian negotiation as "a failure." Lord Salisbury had wrung substantial reforms from the Sultan, but, if you pressed Mr. Curzon on that point, he would "not say that we have any guarantee that the reforms will be carried out." Mr. Bryce then read from the record to show that, even in the matter of announcing the reforms, the Sultan had shuffled and procrastinated from month to month, and finally, on November 7, had said he would not announce them at all. That was the whole of it—a promise insincerely made and then cynically withdrawn. What a situation and confession, after the loud threats of Lord Salisbury last summer!

The emphatic declaration of the English Chancellor of the Exchequer, that Great Britain, although entirely willing to confer with other nations in an international conference, would have no bimetallism in her own currency, is exactly what was expected and predicted when Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was designated for that office. This declaration will go far to silence the bimetallic faction in Germany, since the Prussian Diet some time since voted that it would be inexpedient for Germany to adopt bimetallism without the coöperation of England. In fact, the bimetallic agitation in Germany has now so far subsided as to be under control. It is still squirming in France, however; the agricultural classes being under the delusion that the price of wheat is in some way connected with silver, and that if this metal were remonetized, the farmers would be more prosperous. The French Government, it should be observed, is not restrained by any act of the legislative body from trying this experiment at any time, since the law of 1876 provided merely that the executive branch of government might limit or suspend silver coinage at its discretion. The Ministry can open the mint to silver to-morrow if it chooses, at the ratio of 15½ to 1. The effect of such a step would be the same kind of commercial and political convulsion that would follow free coinage in this country at 16 to 1.

The royal commission on the relief of agriculture in England has reported in the usual fashion of royal commissions. There is a long majority report, a strong minority report, and a long setting forth of individual views by two members who are unable to agree with either majority or minority or with each other. This makes the plaything nature of the commission complete. Salisbury can say to the embattled farmers that he gave them their commission, and that if the commission had been able to agree, he would have been only too happy to take their recommendations into consideration, and see if Parliament could do anything not inconsistent with the laws of trade and the duty of securing a cheap food supply. As it is, he can only advise them to be patient and shuffle the cards and believe that his heart is filled with the tenderest sympathy for them. It is hardly worth while to look in detail at the proposals of the majority. They relate chiefly to easing off the land tax and providing a system of Government loans for agricultural improvements. Both propositions are, of course, stated in the conveniently elastic terms that mean what you please. Taxation of land should not go beyond "a reasonable rate." Government loans are to be "carefully guarded," and given only to "encourage thrift." No one but a wicked man would deny either proposition; but the supernatural wisdom necessary to put either into the exact terms of a statute does not grow on every M. P.

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THE BAYARD CENSURE.

MR. BAYARD will probably take no notice of the vote of censure passed by the House, and his course will probably receive the approval of nine-tenths of the intelligent and thinking portion of the community; and this for various reasons. The principal one is that all censures of a public officer, in order to have effect, should plainly have in view the good of the service, and should emanate from some body whose judicial-mindedness on this point is not open to suspicion. No one would think of attributing to the House any desire that our Ministers abroad should not be partisan, or should be selected for their non-partisanship. If a bill were introduced to-morrow to make our diplomacy a permanent profession, to be filled by men divorced from politics and bound to discretion by the rules of their order, as diplomats are in European countries, it would not have a chance of passing. Nothing, probably, would the Republican majority in Congress resist more strenuously than an attempt to deprive them, in case they won at the next election, of the chance of giving foreign missions to all leading Republican partisans. If one of these partisans had been in Mr. Bayard's place before the Edinburgh University and had protested against and criticised "British free trade" as something unsuited to our country and prejudicial to its best interest, and had denounced its advocates here as "un-American," he would have been secretly applauded by this very House of Representatives, and no notice would have been taken of his escapade. Everybody believes, and many know, that the trouble in Mr. Bayard's case is due to the fact that the wrong ox has been gored. Had he taken a slap at free trade before a British audience, he would have been applauded as a manly American, who looked the "played-out aristocracy" boldly in the face.

The indiscretions of other kinds on the part of our Ministers abroad during the past eighty years have been very numerous, but they have never been noticed when the party of the culprits was in a majority in Congress. In other words, there are two kinds of indiscretion, one blameworthy and one praiseworthy, and this distinction runs through every department of the public service—army, navy, and post-office. When a naval officer, for instance, commits the outrageous offence of criticising the political policy of his superiors, and denouncing their use of his arm of the service, he is loudly applauded by the party to which he belongs in and out of Congress, and his well-merited punishment is treated as an act of tyranny. In truth, party feeling is a subtle poison which runs through every branch of the government, but is of course more deadly in some than in others. When we consider the temptations under which our Ministers abroad labor, to make themselves offensive to the community to which they are accredited, and the applause which such conduct would win for them from such a body as our present Congress, their reserve and good manners are something marvellous, particularly as but few of them have had diplomatic training.

Another thing which stands Mr. Bayard in good stead is the House's own want of discretion. In every field of human activity, a person clothed with the right of censure is in some way the superior of the person censured, either morally or officially, and every such person is bound to set a good example. In all services, public and private, ever since society was organized, censure, by such superior, of faults to which he was himself addicted, has been held to be indecent and ridiculous. The licentious father lecturing the fast son on continence, the drunken officer sitting in judgment on the drunken soldier, the swearing parson preaching against blasphemy, and the defaulting bank president denouncing the pilfering teller, have furnished the comic element to many a tale or drama. We pointed this out when the Senate was raising a hullabaloo about the indiscretion of the Spanish Minister in exposing the falsehoods and blunders of some of its own members.

Our remarks then apply with equal force to the House now. He who exacts discretion from others must be himself discreet. A legislature which insists that public servants must on all occasions, small and great, keep within their own sphere and attend strictly to their own business, must follow its own rule. The present House of Representatives has surpassed all its predecessors in neglecting its proper business and taking up that of other people. It was its duty, when Mr. Cleveland sent in his Venezuelan message, to refer it to the Committee on Foreign Relations, to get a careful report from that body, and to debate fully such report afterwards. Instead of this, it abandoned the duty committed to it by the Constitution, and voted without inquiry $100,000 for semi-warlike purposes. It has neglected another of its great duties in doing nothing to restore order to our finances. It has usurped the constitutional prerogative of the executive in passing undebated resolutions about the internal affairs of four or five foreign countries. It has, in fact, sought to censure foreign governments for not coöperating with each other in their foreign policy. There is hardly any branch of indiscretion which a deliberative body can commit that it has neglected. The result is, that there is probably no subject on which the public listens to it with more impatience than the subject of discretion, because there is apparently no subject about which, judging from its course, it knows less, and it is considered the most ignorant body which has yet met in Washington. Nothing could be more farcical than its notion that its debate on Mr. Bayard was something important. It was important in the gallery, but it made the judicious grieve all over the country.

One thing more must be said. We do not attempt to deny that it was indiscreet and imprudent for Mr. Bayard to say what he did as to the effect of protection on the politics of his own country. But there are degrees in indiscretion, as in every other offence against rules and regulations of which man can be guilty, and Mr. Bayard could hardly have been indiscreet at all with so little damage to his diplomatic character as on this occasion. For we do not believe there is a thinking observer of any creed or party in the United States, even if he be a protectionist, who can deny or explain away what thirty years, not of high tariff but of getting high tariffs passed, modified, and changed, has done for the public life of our country. It may be a good thing to have high or prohibitory duties, but that the annual practice of selling the right to levy them to manufacturers, of enabling whole classes of men to calculate the exact sum which easily purchasable legislation will put in their pockets, has driven men of eminence from public life, has corrupted politics to a degree hardly known since the fall of Rome, has created the boss system, and is thus threatening democratic government itself with overthrow and eclipse, no reflective man will deny. It was doubtless folly of Mr. Bayard to say this before a foreign audience, but it was folly of the sort of which Galileo was guilty when he promulgated the motion of the earth round the sun, at Rome. Galileo was locked up, and Bayard is censured, but they nevertheless both spoke "God's truth," which shall never fail.

FOREIGN IMMIGRATION.

MR. LODGE has been one of the prime movers in the troubles from which the country now suffers. He began a year ago or more to create the perturbation in our foreign relations which, during the last few months, has been so disastrous to business, and has done so much to turn public attention away from our domestic difficulties. He has always, however, reserved for himself a little shelter in the shape of something of comparatively small consequence, which would not seriously affect his own character as a demagogue, and yet enable him to make a display of interest in our domestic affairs. One of these is civil-service reform. Another is copyright. Neither of them seriously attracts public attention, or is likely to damage him or lessen his influence with the class which he most cultivates. Whenever one resents his attacks on the currency, or his tariff madness, or his military propagandism, all of which are likely to affect seriously the character of the nation, the answer always is to see how faithful he is to civil-service reform and what a good friend to international copyright. To these political sentry-boxes he has now added hostility to illiterate immi-

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gration, which he says is "a subject of the greatest magnitude and the most far-reaching importance":

"The injury of unrestricted immigration to American wages and American standards of living is sufficiently plain and is bad enough, but the danger which this immigration threatens to the quality of our citizenship is far worse. That which it concerns us to know, and that which is more vital to us as a people than all possible questions of tariff or currency, is whether the quality of our citizenship is endangered by the present course and character of immigration to the United States. To determine this question intelligently, we must look into the history of our race."

We do not need to look into the "history of our race" to get to the bottom of this matter. The history of our own country is enough. Every one must regret ignorant immigration. There is no doubt that it does lower the quality of our citizenship, and that it has a tendency to breed demagogues. But the question with us to-day is whether, and to what degree, it is responsible for the evils which now afflict us. What are those evils? They are, first, a tariff which, high or low, it seems impossible to settle in any manner which will not make it a constant menace and disturbance to business stability. We care not whether it be a high or low or middling tariff; human nature demands a stable tariff. Our next evil is a mixed, disorderly, and redundant currency, the various denominations of which are maintained at par with each other by borrowing money quarterly. Our third evil is a widespread popular passion for foreign aggression, and the conversion into a military republic of one which was intended to be, and has been until now, a peaceful, trading, manufacturing, agricultural republic.

Now to which of these evils has the foreign immigration, large as it is, ignorant as it is, contributed anything? The States which contain most foreign-born citizens, as we have often pointed out in these columns, have been soundest on the currency question—much sounder than Mr. Lodge or any of his leading companions. On the management of the tariff, which is really our American system of taxation, during the past thirty years the foreign population has exerted no influence, or next to none. It has been almost exclusively in the hands of American manufacturers and their American Congressional allies. Any falsehoods or delusions which have helped to maintain it at an extravagant height, or have led to sudden and violent changes in it, have been spread among the foreign population by intelligent and educated Americans. The irredeemable-greenback movement and the silver movement, with all their absurdities, are of purely native origin, and are most deeply rooted to-day in the States which have received the least foreign immigration. The present prevailing desire, of which Senator Lodge has been himself a chief promoter, to get up disputes with foreign nations which would entail enormous expense, and, if persisted in, seriously change the character of our government, is absolutely native-American in its origin and maintenance. There are very few foreign immigrants, even of the peasant class, who have not clearer conceptions of international morality and of the *convenances* of international intercourse than such men as Morgan and Vest, for example.

The matter on which the influence of the foreign immigrant has been most potent is city government. But the only city in the Union in which this has been visible, palpable, and overwhelming, is New York. The government of New York has been undeniably Irish, and we admit shockingly bad. But, alas, the government of the other cities, Philadelphia for example, which is in native hands, is just as bad and some say worse. So is that of St. Louis, Chicago, and Cincinnati. In all these cities the chief leaders in the work of corruption have been Americans by birth, and as a general rule it is Americans who have taught the foreigners the tricks of the trade. As to foreign illiteracy, to which Mr. Lodge attaches so much importance, we affirm that it has not done us a hundredth part of the mischief wrought by native literacy. Mr. Lodge himself, for instance, was taught to read and write when he was a child, and has, in maturer years, had the best educational advantages the country affords. But, in spite of this, a very large proportion of the educated and thinking men of the country look on him as a citizen who does more damage to the nation than a hundred thousand, or, we might say, a half-million, ignorant Europeans. At no period in the history of the country has so much damage been done to our government as within the last ten years by the Congresses which we have been in the habit of calling "brutish." They have exhibited ignorance and folly in about equal proportions—ignorance about nearly everything with which it behooves a legislator to be acquainted, trade, commerce, industry, finance, currency, foreign relations—and yet every member of them knew how to read and write, with different degrees of proficiency, it is true, but all fairly well. Some had even read books and dictionaries. So it is quite plain that making foreigners read and write at their port of entry would not necessarily make them desirable additions to our voting population, or to our halls of legislation.

Take again the boss system, which is so rapidly changing the character of our State governments: Who devised it? Who carry it on? Who are its main supporters? Why, the native-born country voters of New York and Pennsylvania, just as much as the Irish laborers and liquor-dealers of New York city or Philadelphia. It is not Paddy or Hans who is seen hurrying to No. 49 Broadway every Saturday. In truth, the most marked characteristic of a great deal of such lamentation as Mr. Lodge's over foreign illiteracy, and of a great deal of the legislation of the day, is the desire to find some mechanical substitute for character, something which will dispense with the necessity of being honest and true and upright, and loving one's country in other ways than showing readiness to fight foreigners about matters which do not concern us. Does any one suppose for one moment that if the ruling passion at Washington and Albany to-day were a sincere desire to do what was best for the country, what was most likely to promote the comfort of the poor, and the safety, honor, and welfare of the nation, as these terms were understood by its founders, the existence among us of five times as many illiterate foreigners as we now have could not be witnessed without concern?

McKINLEY IN PRINCIPLE AND IN SCHEDULE.

Some of McKinley's Ohio friends are trying to reassure alarmed Eastern Republicans by saying that their great man is no high-tariff extremist, despite all that is said. He stands committed to no "schedule," they say, only to the general "principle" of protection. His election to the Presidency would not mean, therefore, the reënactment of the McKinley tariff, but simply a reaffirmation of a general policy for this government. Hence there is no reason to fear that Republican success under McKinley would lead to such scandalous selling of legislation as shocked the country and crushed the party in 1890.

All this, instead of reassuring, should redouble the alarm of conservative Republicans. Nothing is more dangerous in politics than a vague "principle" with which all sorts of juggler's tricks may be played. The "schedule" we know: all its bargainings, its rotten spots, its oppressiveness, its little hidden traps and snares. These have been exposed over and over again, and we have, as it were, got used to them. But a "principle" means an entirely fresh set of intrigues and tricky surprises and evils that we know not of. The original McKinley abominations were born of a principle. There was no tariff schedule in the platform of 1888; only a principle in its vaguest and blandest form. But it proved, when the time came to turn it into law, a fruitful mother of mischief. Like a "doctrine," of which, in politics, we have seen such terrible examples of the enormous embarrassments, a "principle" of this kind is more to be dreaded than any conceivable "schedule." In the latter case we have an evil, if it is an evil, which is clear and definite, and can be fought with the ordinary weapons of political discussion, and in the open daylight; in the former, we have to do with a malefic jinn, shut up in a bottle till after the election, and then released like a vast and shifting fog-bank, under cover of which all sorts of foul creatures come to birth.

What McKinley's "principle" really means is a check signed in blank, and

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payable, in legislation, to every manufacturer who turns in *his* check for the campaign fund. That is the way it worked in 1890, and that is the way it will work in 1898. Republicans whose supersensitive stomachs revolted at some of the nauseous doses administered to them in the first McKinley bill, had to listen to mysterious whisperings about "the obligations of the party," "heavy contributors to the campaign treasury, you see," and that sort of thing, besides public remarks about "fat-frying." Usually, the only defence was that the general "principle" was, of course, wise and beneficent, but that many of the details were necessarily iniquitous; and would you sacrifice the blessed whole for these petty defects? There is no reasonable doubt that the same sort of thing is now planning, only on a larger scale. The men whom "the unauthorized loquacity of common fame" now declares to be backing McKinley's canvass with huge sums, and some of whose names and letters Senator Chandler pledges himself soon to publish, will infallibly exact the uttermost farthing if their candidate and his party are successful. That is what the vague talk about McKinley's "principle" truly means—the right of the men who are buying his nomination to take the next tariff bill and sit down quickly and write in it what rates they please. As against such a principle as that, honest men will take a schedule, however vicious, every time.

Putting outright corruption like this one side, it is easy to see that a glittering principle like McKinley's opens wide the door to the most preposterous abuses. Clothe the greatest outrage in the garb of the principle, and it must be admitted to the best protection society. Free silver, bounties, loans to farmers, minimum wages, the right to work, the right to loaf and shirk without starving, insurance against accident and old age, pensions for the million—any or all these schemes have but to vindicate their title to be classified under the principle, and the party is powerless before them. Like the enormities expertly drawn out of the bowels of the Monroe Doctrine, they will impose themselves, not by their own merits, for they have nothing but demerits, but by hanging on to the skirts of the principle. Good Republicans will be saying ruefully about them, as they did about the terrible consequences of the Doctrine, "Well, of course, we don't approve of that kind of thing, and we never dreamed of seeing it brought forward; still, if it's a part of the 'principle,' there's no help for us."

This is no fancy picture. If the Republican party goes into the campaign with McKinley and his principle, and elects him President, it is going to unchain the most formidable political passions that this country has seen. It is going to guarantee, in advance, comfort and prosperity to every voter, and to bring upon the Treasury raiders ten times as numerous and ten times as ugly as the Coxey band. The party's promises to pay will be presented by the thousand, and no payment in smooth prophecies will be accepted. McKinley cannot get off next time by alleging that wages have been increased to the amount of $200,000,000 of gold which never got into the country. Deluded workingmen will angrily demand to see the color of the cash. All the shiftless and unfortunate, all unprosperous merchants and unsuccessful manufacturers, socialists and agitators, labor reformers and abolishers of poverty, will be let loose upon a government that has undertaken to care for them all; and what strength will it have to withstand them?

Concrete protection we can endure. We have worried along with it for thirty years, and can put up with it for another generation if necessary. But abstract, indefinite protection, a principle that is susceptible of fresh and dangerous application every quadrennium; protection that means paternalism in government, class legislation without end, and an abandonment of the law-making power every four years to campaign contributors—this is something which no free people or republican government can tolerate and remain free and republican.

THE MAORIS.

AT SEA, March 1, 1896.

NOTHING in New Zealand, which I am just leaving, has interested me more than the condition of the Maoris, the native inhabitants Their history and their present status differ from those of most of the aboriginal races who have been, or are in process of being, replaced by whites. New Zealand is slightly less in area than the United Kingdom. It was discovered by Tasman in 1642. Cooke, one hundred and twenty-seven years later, was the first European known to have set foot upon its shores. The number of inhabitants was then estimated at from 100,000 to 150,000—the vast majority upon the northern, or the smaller, of the two islands, the climate of which best suited their constitution. There were evidences that the population was not as large as at a previous period. The decline may have been due to the extinction of the moa, which served for food, or to the increase of tribal warfare. Tradition points to the peopling of the country from some of the northeasterly Pacific groups six hundred years ago. Hochstetter and others are inclined to place the date at a more remote period. Similarity in language to some of the other Polynesians would appear to favor the former theory; divergence of character, due to residence in a more bracing climate, the latter.

The Maoris* form one of the most important families of the brown Polynesian stock, that which is believed to have developed its characteristics to the highest degree. They were skilful hunters and fishers and good agriculturists. Their larger houses and canoes, their weapons, ornaments, and utensils were beautifully finished and elaborately carved or painted. Their instruments were of stone, wood, or shell. With these they felled the giant kauri pine, dug out and fashioned sea-going canoes capable of carrying one hundred warriors, and scutched and wove their native flax into delicate fabrics. Their forts, or pahs, were skilfully constructed on commanding sites. Their beautiful language is comprehensive, delicate, and expressive. The most insignificant insects, the smallest plants, the principal stars, are designated. They had no writings. Their songs and proverbs, their legends and traditions and mythology were transmitted orally from father to son. The year was divided into months and seasons. They believed in a future state, and had an elaborate system of temples, priests, omens, and sacrifices. They held slaves; they practised cannibalism, believing in the transfer, to a certain extent, of the qualities of the victim to his devourer.

The Maoris welcomed the advent and settlement of Europeans. The usual results followed. Runaway convicts and sailors, rough whalers and traders (too many of them imbued with all the acuteness born of education and civilization and the devilry born of grasping avarice) contributed their utmost to degrade. Devoted missionaries gave themselves to the work of enlightenment; never elsewhere at one period did the results of their labors appear more hopeful. Settlers purchased wide domains in exchange for a few axes, trinkets, and Jew's-harps. Spars for the British navy, fibre for the manufacture of sacking and cordage, were bartered for spirituous liquors, arms, and ammunition.

In 1835 the Maori chiefs, with the advice and approval of the British Resident, the principal missionaries and merchants, entered into a confederation, issued a declaration of independence, hoisted a national flag, and instituted an annual assembly. Nothing came of this arrangement. They were capable of adopting white ways to the extent of chartering a British vessel and conquering and enslaving the Moriori inhabitants of the Chatham Islands, 500 miles distant; but the working of a regular constitution and a united assembly was beyond their training and capacity. Increasing complications arose between the natives and the ever-swelling number of white settlers and traders, until, in 1840, the treaty of Waitangi was concluded. The tribes ceded the sovereignty of the islands to the British Crown, which guaranteed to them "the full, exclusive, and undisturbed possession of their lands and estates, forests, fisheries, and other properties, so long as it is their wish and desire to retain the same in their possession"; but the chiefs "yield to her Majesty the exclusive right of preëmption over such lands as the proprietors thereof may be disposed to alienate." At this period the Maoris are supposed to have numbered about 100,000.

All might have been well, a new chapter might have been opened in the relations between a white and a colored race, if this treaty had been faithfully adhered to. But it was not to be. In such relations the most scoundrelly whites have it ever in their power to embroil in contests with overwhelming force and drag down to ruin the noblest colored. The treaty was broken by the whites in their lust for acres. "Oh! earth, earth, earth!" wrote Bishop Selwyn from New Zealand, "such has been our cry. The Queen, law, religion have been thrust aside in the one thought for the acquisition of land." The wars which ensued were perhaps the most iniquitous that ever were waged by a civilized country. "If we cannot keep the military engaged here on one excuse, we will on another," said a colonel at the time to a dignitary of the church, who repeated the speech to me. Nearly 10,000 British were at one time in the field. The

*The peculiarities of the race are ably summarized in Wallace and Keane's 'Australasia' (London, 1884).

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Maoris fought with desperate courage and showed high military ability. In 1864, at the unsuccessful assault on the Gate Pah, near Tauranga, I am told, a British regiment lost more officers than had any one regiment at Waterloo. The Maoris upon many occasions showed true nobility of character. They were at first astonished that the British troops, ministered to by clergymen who had taught them the Decalogue, should fight on Sunday. Upon the slain body of one of their principal generals, Henare Taratoa, was found an order of the day. It began with a prayer and ended with the text: "If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink." When the Gate Pah was eventually abandoned by its defenders and occupied by the British, it was found that the stores of water had run out, and that the wounded British who had fallen within the works had been supplied by the Maoris at the risk of life by water carried in through the besieging lines.

The Imperial Government at length became sick of the business. It intimated to the colonists that they should make and keep their peace with the Maoris. The home troops were withdrawn and the war died out. But the Maoris had, in the words of Bishop Selwyn, conceived "an utter loss of faith in everything that is English—clergy and all alike." They withdrew within themselves. They fell back on their old beliefs, strangely mingled with the cosmogony of the Old Testament, in the form which became known as "Hauhauism." Miracles, unknown tongues, inspiration from heaven, messages of angels were alleged in support. The bones of many Maoris who had been interred in Christian churchyards were removed to mountain-heights clear of white pollution.

The Maoris now number 41,000 in the North Island and 3,000 in other portions of New Zealand. The decadence of the race, while partly due to drink and to diseases arising from vice, is mainly to be attributed to other causes. Freshly introduced diseases, such as phthisis, work out with more deadly effect in fresh soil.* Surcease of tribal wars has led to the abandonment of healthy hill habitations. Inexperience in the use of clothing, neglect of the most common sanitary precautions have worked out evil. The principal cause has doubtless been the change in ways of life and thought—the numbing influence of the impact with civilization. Former ambitions, former incentives to exertion, are gone. All their arts, all their industries were strained towards preparation for war, the difficult support of life. War is at an end. Thanks to the way in which they fought, they still retain 10,000,000 acres (not all of the best land) against the 60,000,000 acres held by 700,000 whites. Rents derived from lands leased to whites, and improved methods of agriculture applied to lands under their own care, enable them easily to supply the wants of nature. But a small proportion have as yet acquired civilized wants or civilized ambitions. I saw them under all conditions—from the lowest (yet no lower than I have seen too many of the white inhabitants of a civilized country ground down by long ages of oppression) to where they went about well dressed, driving good buggies, men and women riding on well-appointed horses and employing approved agricultural machinery. In the main they impressed me as children playing with life, somewhat in the spirit of the Australian aborigines who used to exclaim: "Plenty big fool white fellow, make road for black fellow to walk on." Yet there is still a pride and reserve such as I have seen in no other native race. At a tourist resort around which they lived in large numbers, I was but twice asked for money, and then only by children in a somewhat shamefaced manner. They charged highly for admission to view natural curiosities within their domains; but all was at tariff rates, and there was no suggestion of *pour-boires*. They offered nothing for sale where much would gladly be bought. The curiosities sold as native in the shops appeared most likely to be of white manufacture.

In remoter districts there is perhaps something of the open, sunny disposition of old times. In such dealings as I had with them I ever felt as if I were being weighed and used, a member of an unreliable race, simply as far as it suited their convenience. European clothing has been adopted and is generally kept clean and in good order. Flowered hats, in the newest fashion, are much in vogue with the girls. The faces of many of the older men are elaborately tatooed. Many of the women, old and young, are likewise marked from lip to chin. Their demeanor in a crowded land court was as dignified as that of a white gathering. There was no more intoxication among the crowd brought to town by interest in the land cases, around the opposite drink-shop, than I should have seen at home. In this court and that drink-shop I seemed to view in startling contrast the opposite poles of the order to which they are now subject. Beyond a few lawyers and clerks in lower grades, none give themselves to business, few to steady employment. I could not hear of a Maori help, servant, gardener, or groom. There is no current Maori literature. They do not purchase books; newspapers only upon rare occasions. Public notices relating to land affairs are, in the North Island, printed in Maori as in English. The portions of the Government Gazette referring to the desired sale or desired partition among individuals of tribal lands are published in the vernacular.

The Government and people of New Zealand (excepting the liquor-dealers) are now well disposed towards them. At hotels, in horse-cars, on railroads, steamboats, and by the roadside I could not distinguish any difference between the treatment of white and Maori. Apart from considerations other than race or color, there is no feeling against intermarriage. In a considerable town, where I spent some days, both postmaster and schoolmaster had Maori wives. In conversation regarding a young man who had lately been promoted to £300 a year in the public service, it came out incidentally that his wife was colored. In the central and western districts of the North Island, Government interferes as little as possible with them. Roads, even, are not made there without their full permission. The Upper House of Legislature of New Zealand numbers forty-four and the Lower seventy-four. The Maoris have, under the Constitution, two representatives of their own race in the former and four in the latter. Like their white sisters, Maori women have the franchise. Maoris are also eligible as ordinary representatives. Maoris can elect whether they will vote for the constituted Maori representatives or for the ordinary representatives of the district in which they reside. They hold annually, after the manner of the Indian National Congress, an assembly for the discussion of their affairs and the instruction of their Parliamentary representatives. Temporary wooden buildings are erected for the accommodation and entertainment of the delegates and the hundreds of interested visitors who come from all parts of Maoriland. The next will meet at Waihi at the end of the present month.

New Zealand maintains an efficient system of State education—in no department more admirable than in relation to colored citizens. There is a native school department, and wherever there is a likelihood of attenders a native school is established and maintained at the cost of the State. The teaching is somewhat more elementary and practical than in the ordinary schools. There are sixty-five such, maintained at a cost of £15,000, besides four high schools for advanced Maori scholars. Maoris may attend white schools, if such are convenient, and, vice-versa, white children the Maori schools. It is the policy of the Education Department, as white settlers increase in or on the borders of a Maori district, to merge the native schools into ordinary State schools. I visited several of the pure Maori; Maori in which there were a few whites; and one lately Maori now converted into a State school. This last was especially interesting—eighty boys and girls, about equally divided as to race, mixed in their seats and classes. Surely the manners and dispositions of the dark-skinned cannot be of a low type, or the parents of the white would never submit to such an admixture. It is considered inexpedient to attempt to enforce compulsory attendance on Maori children as on white.

It would be impossible to judge as to the character and extent of religious feeling among the race. Doctrinal Christianity has never recovered its pristine hold. Hauhauism prevails to a certain extent. Mormonism has made some way. The Maoris are eminently seekers after "some new thing." I asked a clergyman as to the number belonging to different denominations in a certain district. He apportioned so many hundred to one, so many to the other. "But," I said, "I counted only five in church, and five coming from mass." "Oh," he rejoined, "it is doubtless pretty much the same as with whites at present." That is perhaps the case.

It would be rash to dogmatize regarding the future, where Hochstetter, whose book, written in 1862, is the best authority on the geology, fauna, and flora of New Zealand, is likely to have proved so far wrong. He predicted that by A. D. 1900 the Maoris would be reduced to 29,325, and that they would be extinct by A.D. 2000. For the first time a census does not register a diminution in numbers. Educational and other influences are perhaps beginning to tell favorably. One of the enumerators in the last census reports that there is a marked decrease in general drinking habits, and adds that tribal intermarriage the Maoris "now recognize as being a means of staying their hitherto decline." An admirable handbook on hygiene is used in the native schools. It is specially directed to pointing out, in the kindest spirit, the respects in which Maori customs are deficient. In the latest edition I remark several footnotes to the effect—"This was true in 1884," "This is not true now in 1894," etc. Intermarriages will probably increase in number. Looking to the long future, the race is more likely to be absorbed than to maintain its individuality. The degree in which Maori blood may influence the character of the future New Zealander will depend upon the extent to which the population of the islands is increased by immigration or by internal expansion.

D. B.

* All interested in the subject of disease as a factor in the decadence of native races should procure from the Government Printer, Wellington, New Zealand, Parliamentary Paper A3, 1894, which embodies a treatise on the question by Surgeon Andrews, R. N.

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NAPOLEON AND ALEXANDER I.—II.

PARIS, March 11, 1896.

IMMEDIATELY after the famous diplomatic audience of the 15th of August, 1811, when Napoleon made his complaints to Prince Kurakin, Napoleon left for Saint-Cloud and worked without interruption with the Duke of Bassano. He had all the diplomatic correspondence placed before him. Was he, was he not, to make war on Russia? He examined the question as a mathematical problem. Much was to be said on both sides, but all the arguments led him finally to the necessity of a war, and of an offensive war. At the same time the war must be deferred, as many diplomatic negotiations were to be entered into. The date fixed was June, 1812; up to that moment time must be gained.

The military preparations were made as secretly as possible; they extended from Dantzig to Italy. The Emperor, with the minuteness which was one of his characteristics, and which seems so amazing when you read his correspondence, saw to everything; he gave his orders for his German allies, for the army which was to operate on the northern coasts, the camps of Holland and of Boulogne, the army of Italy, the Guard; he prepared everything for the most formidable campaign which he had yet undertaken. Prussia had almost ceased to exist as an independent power; the King had become a mere vassal of Napoleon, and was in mortal fear of losing his crown. There was in Berlin, however, an ardent anti-French party. The Chancellor Hardenberg favored an alliance of Prussia with Russia; the King wrote secretly to the Tsar, on the 16th of July, asking him to come to his help if he was in danger; Scharnhorst, who had reorganized the Prussian army, left secretly for St. Petersburg and arranged a plan of campaign with the Emperor. Military preparations were made in Prussia which did not escape the eye of Napoleon. Nothing could be more unpleasant to him, if he had a war with Russia, than a sort of resurrection of the kingdom of Frederick the Great; he had asked Frederick William to allow him to occupy Prussia, and to give him a small auxiliary force, in case he had to enter the Russian territory—a force which he considered more as a hostage than as a help. For a moment, he thought of asking Prussia to disarm, and, if she refused, to suppress her entirely as an independent kingdom. With the army of Davout, the garrisons of the North, the troops of the Duchy of Warsaw, of Saxony, and of Westphalia, he thought himself able to do it. The King of Prussia was in a state of mortal anxiety.

Would the Tsar help him? If not, what was he going to do himself? Scharnhorst was in conference with Alexander, but the Tsar interposed difficulties: he was not willing to take the offensive and to enter Prussia. A military convention was signed on the 17th of October, 1811, in which Alexander promised, if Napoleon invaded Prussia, to advance his own troops towards the Vistula. This did not, however, put an end to the perplexities of Frederick William; how could he alone resist Napoleon? He felt in the end condemned to the French alliance. Davout had already prepared a plan of occupation, it may be said of annihilation, of the Prussian kingdom. Scharnhorst went from St. Petersburg to Vienna, hoping to detach Austria from the French alliance, but he obtained nothing from Metternich. On the 12th of January, 1812, the King accepted all the conditions imposed by Napoleon. An auxiliary corps of 42,000 men for the Grande Armée, the occupation of the cities of Prussia by the French troops—such were the most important of these conditions.

In February, 1812, all the elements of the Grande Armée were ready, and began to be gradually and silently put in motion. A general concentration took place towards the Russian frontier. Tchernitcheff had spies in the various departments of the War Office, and was aware of all the preparations. Several of these spies were arrested and accused of high treason. One of them was the porter of the Russian embassy. Kurakin, who was ignorant of this porter's relations with the secret agents of Tchernitcheff, made a complaint, but his porter had not been arrested in the embassy itself, and he had no more to say. Towards the middle of April, all the movements ordered by Napoleon had been executed. The winter in Paris had been extremely brilliant and animated; but war with Russia was in everybody's mouth—the negotiations had become a mere veil on both sides. Alexander, having signed a treaty of alliance with Sweden, separated from Speranski, who was the representative of the French alliance. The party hostile to Speranski went so far as to accuse him unjustly of treason. On the 17th of March, Speranski had work as usual with the Emperor Alexander. He remained three hours with him, and, when the door opened, Speranski was seen to come out, his eyes full of tears, making incoherent gestures. The Emperor appeared a moment, and said merely, "Adieu, Prince!" and, a moment after, "Adieu again, Michael Mikhailovitch." The same evening, Speranski was arrested, put in a kibitka, and taken to Nizhni. The court was in a state of exaltation, and it was said in St. Petersburg that the sacrifice of Speranski was "the first victory over the French."

Bernadotte had become very ardent against Napoleon; he denounced him as having the wildest projects. "They write to me," said he to Suchtelen, the Russian Minister, "that he hopes to have done with Russia in a couple of months; then he will go to Constantinople; he speaks of attacking Persia, of establishing himself in Ispahan, and in three years from this time he will march on Delhi and attack the English in India."

On the 5th of May, Napoleon showed himself at the Opera with the Empress; it was his farewell to Paris. On the 9th, early in the morning, he took his departure from Saint-Cloud; hundreds and thousands of carriages left Paris on that day, following the imperial carriages. It was said that the Emperor was making a mere inspection of his armies. The *Moniteur* announced that "the Emperor has left Paris in order to inspect the Grande Armée on the Vistula. Her Majesty the Empress will accompany his Majesty as far as Dresden, where she hopes to have the happiness of seing her august family." Napoleon went by way of Châlons, Metz, Mainz, Wurtzburg, Bamberg, travelling like an Asiatic potentate, and finding everywhere his vassals. Thousands of peasants kept the roads in perfect repair where he passed; and, in the night, great fires were kindled near the roads. In Dresden, the Emperor took possession of the Residenz; he lived in the magnificent rooms which had once been inhabited and embellished by Augustus II., the Elector King. The princes of the Confederation of the Rhine arrived one after another—the princes of Weimar, of Coburg, of Mecklenburg, the Grand Duke of Wurtzburg, the primate of the Confederation; then came Queen Catherine of Westphalia, Prince Eugène, the Emperor and Empress of Austria, Count Metternich, Prince Hatzfeld. For several days, Napoleon kept a Court of Sovereigns, but in the intervals of the great dinners and theatrical representations he worked with the Duke of Bassano and the Prince of Neuchâtel, the chief of staff. In the evening, at the theatre, Napoleon could look, as he had been said already to have looked, at Erfurt, on a "parterre de rois." He was in the great box, placed in the middle, between the two Empresses; the kings, princes and princesses, ladies and gentlemen, were placed according to the rules of the protocol. One night, after a representation of an opera of Paër's, there was a sort of apotheosis: the centrepiece was a revolving sun, with the inscription "Moins grand et moins beau que lui." The Emperor of Austria bowed mildly to Napoleon, who said, shrugging his shoulders, "Il faut que ces gens-là me croient bien bête." The King of Prussia arrived last, more like a victim than like a guest. It seemed as if all the sovereigns tacitly recognized a supreme authority, and, during these Dresden days, Napoleon appears as the Emperor of Europe.

On the morning of May 29, Napoleon took leave of the Empress, of the kings and princes, and started for the north. Marie Louise left for Prague, where she was allowed to stay some time with her parents. Napoleon went to Posen, without stopping an instant. He reached the Vistula at Thorn, where he found his army in its quarters on all sides. Thorn was the centre of a chain of armies which was no less than two hundred leagues in length. Half a million of men were waiting for his orders. He made a rapid visit to Davout at Dantzig, and also to Murat. Seven corps-d'armée advanced in order towards the Niemen. On the night of June 22, Napoleon in person made a reconnoissance on the river with Berthier, each dressed in a Polish uniform, with a lancer's shapska. He was a very good topographer, and chose a place near Kovno for the passage of the river; all the details of the passage were prepared by him. The troops were arriving on all sides: the Emperor placed them. He had a fall from his horse, on one of his excursions, but did not hurt himself. Caulaincourt, who was on the staff, heard Berthier, galloping by him, say: "This fall is of bad omen; we ought not to cross the Niemen." On the other side of the river, no troops, no sentries, were seen. Napoleon expected some resistance, and was almost disappointed in not finding any. He asked Caulaincourt: "Have the Russian peasants any energy? Are they of the same stuff as the Spaniards? Do you think the Russians will abandon Wilma to me without fighting a battle?" He was very anxious to have a battle; he hoped that the Russian nobles would make a revolution and overthrow Alexander. The river was crossed in admirable order, the troops marching as on parade; a whole night and a whole day were necessary for this operation. Napoleon witnessed it; the soldiers had built for him a sort of throne made of branches and of turf. He crossed the river early, and became almost intoxicated with the splendid military spectacle under his eyes; he was very gay, even jovial; he hummed between his teeth the air of "Malbrough s'en va-t-en guerre."

On the very day when Napoleon crossed the Niemen, Rostoptchin, who had been appointed Governor of Moscow, wrote to the Tsar: "Your Empire has two powerful defences, its extent and its climate; the Emperor of Russia will be formidable at Moscow, terrible at Kazan, invincible at Tobolsk." Alexander left

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Wilna on the 17th of June; there was much division of opinion among his councillors and military advisers, but it was finally resolved that the principal Russian army, under Barclay de Tolly, should retire from Wilna to Drissa, and that Bagration, with a second army, should remain on the flank of the French army. When it became known how superior the Grande Armée was in numbers, Bagration also was ordered to retreat. Alexander made a last effort. Balakhoff, his aide de-camp as well as his Minister of Police, was sent to Napoleon with a final offer of negotiation and of peace. Alexander gave him a letter for Napoleon, but instructed him to say to the Emperor that negotiations could be opened only if the French recrossed the Niemen. "So long as a single soldier remained in arms on Russian soil, he would himself neither pronounce nor hear a word about peace." Balakhoff took a few Cossacks and a trumpeter with him, and arrived at the French line. He was conducted to the headquarters of the Prince of Eckmühl, whom he found occupied with the routine of his work, and who did not conceal from him the fact that he considered his mission the means of gaining a little time. Napoleon exulted when he heard of Balakhoff's arrival. He said to Berthier: "My brother Alexander would already like to come to terms; he is afraid. My manœuvres have thrown consternation among those Russians; in two months they will be at my feet." Meanwhile, he was in no hurry to give an audience to Balakhoff, and asked Davout to keep him, as he wished to see him only after having entered Wilna. He hoped to fight a battle before Wilna, but was allowed to enter it without meeting with any resistance. The Russians had burned the bridges and their stores.

It was only a few days afterwards that Napoleon sent for Balakhoff, on the 30th of June. Their conversation took place after Napoleon's breakfast, while he was taking his coffee. Napoleon as usual was eloquent, varied; he went over all the incidents which had preceded the war; he complained of Alexander's advisers; he put a hundred questions; he was sometimes angry, sometimes most amiable. He asked Balakhoff to dinner in the evening, with Berthier, Duroc, Bessières, and Caulaincourt. After dinner, after some very improper questions about Alexander's sojourn in Warsaw and his visits to a certain Madam S——, with his usual studied versatility he suddenly asked: "Which is the road to Moscow?" Balakhoff reflected a moment, and said: "Sire, this question is meant to embarrass me. The Russians say, as the French do, that all roads lead to Rome. You can take which one you like to go to Moscow; Charles XII. took the Poltava road." The answer is so clever that we ask if it was really made; it is at any rate in Balakhoff's official report on his mission.

Notes.

COPELAND & DAY, Boston, will publish directly 'Lyrics of Earth,' by Archibald Lampman; 'Undertones,' by Madison Cawein; 'The Road to Castaly,' by Alice Brown'; 'In Soul and Sense,' by Hannah Parker Kimball; 'In the Village of Viger,' by Duncan Campbell Scott; and 'The Captured Cunarder,' by William H. Rideing.

'The House: An Episode in the Lives of Reuben Baker, Astronomer, and his Wife Alice,' by the late Eugene Field; 'Cinderella, and Other Stories,' by Richard Harding Davis; Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Poems and Ballads,' now first collected in one volume; and a series of volumes of "Stories by English Authors," arranged according to the countries which are the scene of the action, are among the promised publications of Charles Scribner's Sons.

G. P. Putnam's Sons, resuming an old conjunction with the house of John Murray, London, in this particular, will bring out a new edition of George Borrow's 'The Bible in Spain' and 'Lavengro,' the first in two volumes. They announce also, for speedy publication, the 'Hastings Chess Tournament,' the seventh of the ten volumes of Ford's 'Writings of Jefferson,' and the fourth of Roosevelt's 'Winning of the West.'

Early spring announcements of Edward Arnold embrace 'In the Far Northwest: A Record of a Canoe Journey of 4,000 miles from Fort Wrangel to the Pelly Lakes, and down the Yukon to the Behring Sea,' by Warburton Pike, with illustrations; 'The Exploration of the Caucasus,' by Douglas W. Freshfield, in two volumes, with panoramic and many other photographic illustrations; and 'The Art of Reading and Speaking,' by Canon James Fleming.

Macmillan & Co. have nearly ready an 'Atlas of Nerve Cells,' edited by M. Allen Starr, M.D.

'The Wind's Will,' a college story, by Rey Tillotson; 'The Romance of Guardamonte,' by Arline E. Davis; 'A Pretty Bandit,' by Frank Bailey Millard; and 'Out of a Silver Flute,' by Philip Verrill Mighels, are in the press of J. Selwin Tait & Sons.

Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago, will publish 'A History of the American Tariff, from Washington to Cleveland,' by Eugene C. Lewis.

But six months have elapsed since we favorably reviewed Statham's 'Architecture for General Readers' (Scribners), and we now have in hand a second edition, revised. This compact treatise is attractively printed and bound, and freely illustrated, has its index and its list of plates and cuts, but, strange to say, has no table of contents, though the text is unbroken except by paragraphs in either of the two parts into which the work is divided. Dependence for a general view is solely upon the headlines.

Lovers of Dartmoor will welcome the new edition of Rowe's 'Perambulation of Dartmoor,' which has been issued by the enterprise of an Exeter bookseller, Mr. James Commin, and published in this country by Messrs. Putnam. Samuel Rowe, Vicar of Crediton, was an excellent specimen of the antiquary of the last generation—learned in an old-fashioned way, leisurely and gossipy, and with a weakness for Druids; and both the original edition of this his work of love, published in 1848, and the reprint of 1856, had become difficult to procure. It has now been revised and enlarged, by Mr. J. Brooking Rowe; there are additional chapters on the geology and botany of the moor by competent writers; there are two-dozen charming engravings of Dartmoor scenery from drawings of Mr. F. J. Widgery; and the needs of the pedestrian are amply met by four large-scale maps. Altogether it is a solid and handsome book, in whose five hundred pages tourists, topographers, and antiquaries may all browse with pleasure; and it reflects much credit on the "local" publisher and the "local" printer.

The centenary of Burns is now "on," and his admirers will find much satisfaction in the uncommonly pretty two-volume edition of the Poems just brought out in London by Clement Wilson, and in Philadelphia by J. B. Lippincott Co. Mr. James A. Manson proves a judicious editor, refraining from overloading the notes, which are relegated to the rear of volume ii. along with the glossary and index to first lines, and furnishing a sufficient introductory sketch. There is no embellishment besides the typography, which is elegant and not trying to the eyes, though condensed.

We have already noticed the appearance of the first volume of the Muirheads' translation of Helbig's Guide to the 'Public Collections of Classical Antiquities in Rome' (Leipzig: Baedeker). The publication of the second (1896) completes a most useful book. Intended to guide the student of archæology or the cultivated layman through the Roman museums, it takes up the different works of art in the order in which they naturally meet the eye, gives a description of each, and refers the reader to larger books in which may be found either pictorial illustration or fuller verbal treatment. To each description is prefixed a paragraph naming the provenance (when possible) of each piece of sculpture, and indicating the restorations which it has suffered. All the public museums are included except the Faliscan in the Villa di Papa Giulio. The accounts of the sculptures in the Square of the Capitol and of the collections in the Museum delle Terme are absolutely new. The volumes are of the regulation "Baedeker" size, are provided with an excellent index, and will be indispensable alike to the student and to the intelligent traveller.

The growing interest in "sociology" which is just now felt in France is illustrated by the fact that M. Ch. Baye has recently taken the trouble to translate into French the 'Grundriss' of the Graz Professor, Ludwig Gumplowicz (which appeared so long ago as 1885), under the title 'Précis de Sociologie' (Paris: Chailley). The American reader who shall make the acquaintance of Prof. Gumplowicz's work for the first time in this garb will find in it some very vigorous and suggestive criticism of previous writers, especially of Comte and Spencer, and an interesting account of one but little known save by professed psychologists, viz., Bastian. In the constructive part, he will find much confident theorizing with little definite evidence, and a principle put forward as fundamental—that civilization always began in conquest—which looks very much as if it had been suggested by the peculiar history of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. It is a small matter, but one would like to know what the circumstances are in Prof. Gumplowicz's part of the world which have produced a scorn, so fine and so much in evidence, for any opinion that seems to be tainted by "Biblical" or theological influences.

'La Force du Mal,' by Paul Adam (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is a work in which the influence of Zola is visible. It is not open to the reproach of obscenity, as so much of the work of Zola himself, but it contains passages written in the veriest naturalistic vein, for which many readers will feel instant and instinctive repulsion. The descriptions of choleraic cases are no doubt faithful, but are also loathsome, however closely connected with the story. But the book is strong and presents strong characters—those of the young doctor, who sacrifices the certainty of wealth and a brilliant career to principle and truth, and of the girl who becomes his wife and who is of the same metal. The clear recognition of duty and the brave acceptance of poverty and calumny are the points which the author appears to emphasize, and are those which raise

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his work above the level of the average "naturalistic" novel.

"Jean Rolland" is the masculine pseudonym of Margaret Belin, a writer who would greatly improve her work by a diminution in the length of her analyses, which are neither subtle enough nor profound enough to warrant their excessive development. This improvement is not found in her last book, 'Sous les Galons' (Paris: Colin), and the more the pity, for she has a simple and attaching subject which, when she gets fairly into it, she makes distinctly interesting. In this volume she has certainly kept the good wine for the last, and totally neglected Boileau's wise precept: "Le sujet n'est jamais assez tôt expliqué."

If any reader is inclined to look with suspicion on Roger Dombre's 'Tante Rabat-joie' (Paris: Colin), because it is marked "for young girls," let him not think he will waste time in reading it. The story is of a charming young girl and is delightfully told, with the *verve* of Gyp, to whom the book is dedicated, and the wit of De la Brète. It takes and keeps the attention, and "young girls" whose parents may buy it are not likely to get at its lively pages until the parents have read every one of them.

The sixth volume of Jules Lemaitre's 'Les Contemporains' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.) is composed mainly of a long and appreciative article on Lamartine, whom the critic puts on a very high pedestal indeed. His reasons for so doing are set out at length and will not be accepted as sufficient by every reader. The other important article is on "L'Influence récente des littératures du Nord," an influence never cordially admired by Lemaitre, and which he believes to have spent its force and to be on the point of disappearing altogether, thanks to a possibly near-at-hand reaction of the Latin spirit.

The thin index to Conrad's 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften' is now followed by a "first supplementary volume" (Jena: Gustav Fischer) as thick as the last of the original six. Although the supplement contains articles upon several new subjects, it does little towards bringing the performance of the book as a whole into harmony with the promise of its title. The new subjects are, for the most part, such as might well have been embraced even within the restricted plan of the original volumes. One new article, indeed, is broadly entitled "The State," but the writing of it was intrusted to Adolf Wagner, and he, of course, treated the subject exclusively "in its economic aspects." Thus the whole field of political philosophy, like the fields of international and of public law, is still excluded, and the mis named 'Dictionary of the Political Sciences' remains in fact a dictionary of political economy, theoretical and practical. The justification of a supplementary volume must be sought, therefore, not in the new rubrics which it introduces, but rather in the fresh material with which it elucidates subjects already treated in the body of the book. The publication of the 'Handwörterbuch' began in 1890. Since that date the principal countries of the world have taken censuses, whose results (except our own) are now available. Diligent use of these results, and of other recent statistical reports, is exhibited in not a few articles, notably in those on population, trades and occupations, corporations, strikes, and trade unions. The articles on such diverse subjects as factory laws, canals, industrial arbitration, paper money, the social democracy, and the German state pensions give excellent summaries of recent legislation. Particularly worthy of mention are the account of the recent reform of the Austrian currency, by Prof. Zuckerkandl of Prague, and the description of the Italian banks, by Prof. Ferraris of Padua.

Albert Bielschowsky's 'Goethe, sein Leben und Werke' (Munich: Beck) is to be completed in two volumes, of which the first, containing 520 pages, has just been issued. The author presents the results of his careful researches in a compendious and remarkably readable form, and enters sufficiently into the minor details, which may often seem trivial, but which really invest the lives of great men with human interest. Especially charming are his account of the poet's sojourn in Italy, and the critical analyses of "Iphigenie" and "Tasso" as the literary fruits of Goethe's immediate contact with classical art and antiquity. The second volume will appear in the autumn.

As an evidence of the general diffusion of elementary education in Bavaria, we note that of the 29,759 men enrolled for military service in that country during the years 1894 and 1895, only ten were unable to read and write. In Prussia 514 recruits out of 157,854 were found to be deficient in this respect.

Interesting from an ethical point of view are the recently published statistics of India, which show one convicted criminal out of every 274 Europeans, one to 509 Asiatics, one to 709 native Christians, one to 1,361 Brahmans, and one to 3,787 Buddhists.

There lies before us a little book, 'The Maxims of Chanakya,' translated into English by K. Raghunathji, author of 'The Dancing Girls of Bombay,' 'The Beggars and Criers of Bombay,' &c., &c., &c. (Bombay: Printed at the Family Printing Press). Chanakya was Prime Minister of the famous King Sandrokottos, about 300 B. C., founder of the greatest dynasty of Ancient India, and well known to the Greeks, whom he called Yavanas (Ἰάονες or Ἴωνες, *i. e.*, the Ionians). Listen now to Raghunath's version of a maxim: "The wise have declared that the Yavan (the Greek or Muhammadan) is equal in baseness to a thousand outcastes; and hence the Muhammadan [why not at least "Greek or Muhammadan"?] is the basest of men." Here is *fin de-siècle* hatred for Islam projected back, by jingo, to a time some eight centuries anterior to the Hejira! And what could surpass this precious blunder, unless perhaps the delightful confusion of the venerable Bengalee Baboo who mixed up Moses and his Ten Commandments with the Laws of the Twelve Tables! Was it intended that the products of the "Family Printing Press" should not get outside of this Hindu Jingo's "Family"?

Mr. Edward Field, one of the Record Commissioners of the City of Providence, has sent out a small edition (250 copies) of the 'Tax Lists of Providence during the Andros Period, 1686-89,' together with a list of persons liable to a poll tax in 1688. He has added some schedules of taxable property of the same date, making a most acceptable contribution to the history of a colony which has been very unfortunate in respect to its archives.

The quarterly bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of recent additions arranged according to subjects with author and subject-indexes, and a chronological list of Spanish and Portuguese fiction. Its publication ceases with this number, and its place will be taken by monthly lists of new books, which may also contain special bibliographies and topical reference lists, though these may appear separately.

The House of Commons has finally settled the vexed question of the Sunday opening of national collections, by voting "that it is desirable that the national museums and art galleries in London should be open for a limited number of hours [on Sundays] after 2 P. M., upon condition that no officer shall be required to attend more than six days in the week, and that any one who may have conscientious objections shall be exempt from Sunday duty." A substitute Sabbatarian motion, rejecting Sunday opening and offering the sop of three weekly evening openings, was lost by a vote of 178 to 93. In the course of the debate, Sir John Lubbock, trustee of the British Museum, stated that its trustees were in favor of opening the collections to Sunday visitors. The mover of the resolution reported a petition from 109 London trades-unions, and referred to the favorable report of a committee of four bishops and a dean, who ventured the opinion that Sunday opening "would not be a desecration." It is worthy of remark that this revolution in the use of the British Museum, the National Gallery, and the great collections at South Kensington should be conceded by a Parliament unique in this generation for the size of its Tory majority.

The University of Pennsylvania has decided to establish upon the "George Leib Harrison Foundation, for the Encouragement of Liberal Studies and the Advancement of Knowledge," twenty-seven new scholarships and fellowships, of the aggregate annual value of $13,200. Of these, eight, of the value of $100 a year and free tuition, are open only to graduates of the University. Fourteen fellowships, of the value of $600 a year, less $100 devoted to publication or equipment, are open to the graduates of any institution, may be held for two years, and are intended for candidates for the degree of Ph.D. Five Senior Fellowships, of the value of $800 a year, may be held for three years, and are open only to those who have taken the degree of Ph.D. at the University. Further particulars may be had by addressing Mr. Jesse Y. Burk, Secretary of the University, Philadelphia.

Particulars concerning three fellowships for 1896-97 in the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, and a necessary blank form of application, may be had by addressing Prof. Samuel Ball Platner, Temporary Secretary of the Managing Committee, at Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. These scholarships, of $600, $600, and $500 (Christian Archæology) respectively, are open to bachelors of arts of universities and colleges in the United States and other American students of similar attainments. Residence for the full school year of ten months will be mainly in Rome, with possibility of travel and study in Italy and Greece.

—We are kindly permitted by Prof Breasted of Chicago University to make the following extracts from a private letter from Mr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, dated Luxor, February 14, 1896, and summing up this explorer's winter work in Egypt:

"The Ramesseum is of Ramses II.—the only thing left unchanged. The chapel of Uazmes was rebuilt by Amenhotep III., as his ring was under the door-sill. The temple next south is of Tahutmes IV.—yet unnamed in maps. Next is a big tomb of Khonsu ardus, goldsmith of the temple of Amen, XXV. dyn. Then comes the levelled plain with a scarp of rock-gravel on the W. and N., marked ⌐¬ on maps; and on the plain—but later than its levelling—was a temple of Queen Tausert as sole ruler, 'Tausert, setep en Mut, Sat Ra, mery Amen,' who has left us in foundation-deposits 500 scarabs and plaques of colored glazes with cartouches, and 1,200 glazed objects, besides three slabs with the names. Then south of that is the so-called temple of Amenhotep

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III., which is really the funeral temple of Merenptah. That beast smashed up all the statues and sculptures of Amenhotep II. to put into his foundations, and wrecked the gorgeous temple behind the colossi for building-material. We have a few fine pieces of Amenhotep III.; and the upper half of a fine black granite statue of Merenptah. I am now going to clear two small temples north of the Ramesseum; so you see we are getting through the field of temples here at a pretty good rate. Quibell is doing the Ramesseum, and I am doing the others. We make complete plans of all the buildings and foundations. This sort of clearing up is what 'exploration' should be, and not merely the elaborate clearing out of one building. The whole lot of half-a-dozen temple sites we shall clear up, and fix historically, for about $2,500 or $3,000. . . . I bought a piece of a stele dedicated by the 'Royal son, 'Ahmes, called Sapa'r,' explaining his name. He is figured as a boy. Bant anta was probably mother of Merenptah, as her name occurs in his temple ruins, but no other relatives."

—Mr. E. K. Chambers has done good service to letters in the 'Poems of Donne,' which he has contributed to "The Muses Library" (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners). He has carefully revised the text on the basis of the old printed copies, very properly rejecting most of the manuscript readings introduced by Dr. Grosart into his exasperating edition; he has made an attempt (valiant, but not uniformly successful) to regulate the punctuation, and he has added a body of notes. These notes, though they contain a good deal of bibliographical information, and are particularly rich in details about the persons to whom Donne's poems are addressed, are very weak on the exegetical side. Few authors need notes more than Donne, and Mr. Chambers has passed by many difficult places in silence. *Per contra*, he has taken pains to explain a number of words which must be familiar to everybody who is likely to read Donne at all, and which, besides, are perfectly accessible in all the dictionaries. Nor are his explanations always free from vagueness. "Mithridate," for instance, is defined as "an antidote, so called from Mithridates VI., King of Pontus, who took elaborate precautions against poison." The volumes are so pretty, however, and contain so much that is good, that one is disinclined to pick flaws. Mr. Saintsbury contributes an introduction written in his usual jolting style.

—The preface to the Rev. William Cunningham's 'Modern Civilisation in some of its Economic Aspects' (London: Methuen) describes the book as "an elementary treatise on political economy." It is, we believe, Dr. Cunningham's first comprehensive book on the subject, and, so far as his economic notions appear in this brief "sketch of the mechanism by which business affairs are carried on," they seem to differ less, at bottom, from the notions of other English economists than both he and they have at times assumed. Dr. Cunningham's method of presentation, however, is fresh and attractive. For example, his third part, corresponding to the traditional book on Distribution in the traditional treatise, is entitled not "Wages, Interest, and Rent," but "Hiring, Investing and Letting." In other words, Dr. Cunningham, as becomes an historical economist, describes processes instead of criticising concepts—his economics are realistic. But economic realism, as he understands it, leads by no means to economic materialism. On the contrary, it demands the adequate recognition, in addition to self-interest, of other real forces, such as family feeling, public spirit, and religious influence, each contributing its share to that industrial self-discipline which alone can assure the fruits of material progress. In his discussion of the relative efficiency of self-discipline and of legal discipline, Dr. Cunningham enters a well-timed protest against the current tendency to speak of philanthropic legislation as socialistic whenever it distributes among the poor the taxes collected from the well-to-do, and to advocate reforms of all sorts under the name of "practical socialism." So far from being socialism of any sort whatever, all state action which aims, as wise philanthropic legislation does, to awaken and to strengthen the sense of responsibility, is distinctly individualistic. Such legislation avoids the greatest weakness of socialism, the failure to furnish an incentive to persistent exertion.

—Every amateur who chances to light upon a report of a trial by the Spanish Inquisition is so impressed by its skilful blending of cruelty and injustice that he hastens to communicate it to the world as though it were a new discovery. Thus in the *Revue Bleue* of February 8 we find a long account of a couple of cases against the dead in the tribunal of Ciudad-Real, in 1484, involving the confiscation of a large number of estates of wealthy New-Christians. They suffice to prove the thesis of the writer in contradicting the assertion of a certain school of historians that the Spanish Inquisition was a milder institution than its predecessor, but in themselves (and herein lies their only interest) they are merely commonplace examples of the daily routine of the Holy Office performing its function of stripping the descendants of their property and turning it into the royal coffers. In admitting the Inquisition into their dominions, Ferdinand and Isabella had shrewdly reserved the confiscations for the royal treasury, instead of allowing them, as in Italy, to inure to the benefit of the Church; so that greed and fanaticism joined hands in purifying the lands of the so-called heresy of the Judaizing Christians, forcibly converted since the days of San Vicente Ferrer. The process was neither better nor worse than that which had been followed since the thirteenth century, but the results were more profitable, for the victims were more numerous and more opulent. Possibly, moreover, their persecution may seem to us more odious, for it is easier to sympathize with steadfast adherence to the ancient faith—older in the Peninsula than Christianity itself—than with the devotion of the Albigenses to the upstart dualistic Manichæism whose principles were fundamentally irreconcilable with the Christian faith.

—A writer in the Milan *Corriere della Sera* of February 29 inquires what may be the cause of the *rapidity* of the decadence of the Italian Parliament, amid the general decline of all parliamentary bodies. He would trace this decadence beyond 1876, which many consider the date of its beginning, to the occupation of Rome as the capital of united Italy, and the temporary adoption of the Ludovisi palace constructed by Bernini in 1650, and furnished in the time of Innocent XII. with a huge semicircular court-yard, whose conversion into a hall produced the present Chamber of Deputies of Montecitorio. This makeshift contrivance was for the seating of 508 Deputies, or for 450 in actual attendance in the most exciting times, as this writer believes. He compares the dimensions of the hall with public spaces and with the projected substitute for the present French Chamber, to accommodate 900 Deputies, and finds Montecitorio twice as capacious as the latter for half the seats. He moralizes very judiciously on the physical effects of such vastness on debate—the premium it sets on mere lung-power and gesticulation, the exaggeration it perforce imposes on the simplest statements or rhetorical devices. "The smile," he says, quoting a French writer, "which a pleasantry might have provoked in a parlor, becomes a sonorous peal of laughter in an assembly; an objection to an opponent made with diffidence in a small committee is transformed into a violent apostrophe in the midst of five hundred persons." The first remedy he suggests for Italy's case is of course a smaller hall, in which speaking and hearing will be easy and calm persuasion possible. But he also puts his finger on the evil of over-representation, so well illustrated by the number not only of our own Congressmen but of our State legislators—a crowd in which mediocrity and corruption flourish, business drags, and historical and legal consistency is all but lost sight of.

—It is gratifying to notice the prosperity of the Asiatic Society of Japan, and it will be good news to those who do not already know it that the invaluable Transactions, now numbering twenty-three volumes, in fifty-eight numbers, can be bought for prices averaging $1.50 a number in silver *yen*, which in American money is really but half price. Vol. xxiii. contains two excellent papers, by W. G. Aston in English and by Maurice Courant in French, on the Önmun, or phonetic alphabet of Korea. Both writers practically agree that the "clerk-method" of writing Korean in abbreviated Chinese ideograms was invented in the seventh century, but that the true Önmun, a phonetic alphabet of twenty-eight letters, is the work of a Korean statesman of the fifteenth century. Dr. D. C. Greene has an illuminating paper of fifty-one pages on the Tenrikyō, or the Teaching of the Heavenly Reason. This influential Japanese Shintō sect was founded by a woman named Miki, within the present century. The article is well worth reading in connection with Mr. Percival Lowell's 'Occult Japan.' Mr. Clay MacCauley writes felicitously of the Japanese landscape, but his discourse on "Silver in Japan" is not considered orthodox enough to go in as a body article, and hence is printed in small type in the appendix. As a rule, the Supplements to the Transactions are of even more value to special scholars than the varied contributions in the Transactions proper, and that to vol. xxiii. is no exception. Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain, the indefatigable traveller, not content with his Aino studies, has, after hearing the Luchuan (Loochooan) language in its own home, as well as discussing it with educated natives in Tokio, written "An Essay in Aid of the Grammar and Dictionary of the Luchuan Language." It is more than probable that this study of a master will bear fruit in further researches into the Japanese language itself, besides throwing valuable light on Shintō and the archæology of ancient Japan, especially in the southwest. The first sample of Luchuan speech given to the outer world was by Captain Basil Hall, the grandfather of this present distinguished Anglo-Japanese scholar.

FOSTER'S COMMENTARIES.

Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States, Historical and Juridical. By Roger Foster. Vol. I. Preamble to Impeachment. Boston: The Boston Book Co. 1895.

More than sixty years have passed since the

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appearance of Story's 'Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States.' Changes of the utmost importance in our constitutional and political history have taken place during these years. The development of the slavery controversy, culminating in secession and civil war; the partisan bitterness of Reconstruction; the experiments with tariffs and finance; the expansion of interstate commerce, and the admission of new States, have profoundly affected judicial interpretation of the Constitution, while the researches of numerous students in the field of American history have made available a mass of material relating to the origin and early growth of our political institutions which was virtually unknown even a generation ago. It is a high tribute to the value of Story's work that his 'Commentaries' is still the classical and indispensable treatise on the law of the Constitution, and that thus far the works of later writers have supplemented without superseding it. Nevertheless, there has long been need of a treatise which, by its broad and thorough survey of the whole field of judicial decision and historical research, should do for American constitutional law in 1896 what Story's treatise did for it in 1833. Mr. Foster's 'Commentaries,' of which the first of three volumes has lately appeared, is quite the most ambitious of recent attempts to deal with the subject in a large way.

There are certain qualities which are indispensable to a writer who would successfully expound a national constitution. He must have abundant knowledge joined to power of clear and accurate statement. He ought not to parade his learning, but will need skill in grouping his material effectively; and to do this he must have an intelligent sense of proportion. He must be free from partisanship and had better refrain from prophecy. To crown all, he must have a certain charm of manner, a gift for easy and dignified expression, without which his work, however valuable for reference, is likely to be uninteresting, and may be dull. How far Mr. Foster has met these requirements can be judged more fairly when the remaining volumes of his 'Commentaries' shall have appeared. He unquestionably has considerable learning; he has labored industriously and accumulated a great store of facts. But he does not always wear his learning easily, as is shown, for example, by the unnecessary and wearisome length to which the quotations and abstracts from 'Elliot's Debates' are prolonged. Similarly, the appendix to chapter i., a fourteen-page account of Lilburne and the 'Agreement of the People,' is interesting, but its appropriateness may be questioned.

One does not expect a legal treatise to be easy reading; but Mr. Foster does not lessen the natural difficulty by writing in a style which is almost uniformly dry and hard, and not seldom inelegant and inaccurate as well. On page 11 we read that "even the power to regulate trade upon waters wholly within the United States was vested nowhere, unless in a bay or river entirely within a single State"; on page 324, that "the natural imitation of the practice in the mother country had made the colonial legislatures elected directly by the people." The readmission of Georgia after the civil war was delayed by "a hitch in the proceedings" (p. 255). Chapter xii. has for its title "The Presidency and Other Officers of the Senate." Occasionally the meaning is obscure, as when, among Constitutional guarantees of State rights, there is mentioned (p. 276) "the right to have representation in the House of Representatives otherwise apportioned in accordance with population, unless a State for any reason except crime denies the right of suffrage to any of its male inhabitants who are twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, except for crime." We are told on page 301 that the blending of legislative and executive powers has "spread into all countries where civil liberty is enjoyed, except a few like Germany, . . . and perhaps two or three countries in Central and South America besides the United States, where the presidential form of government prevails." The most extraordinary example of loose writing that we have noted is the following sentence on page 160: "By the Missouri compromise in 1820, it had been provided that slavery should not be allowed in the territory acquired from France, north of the parallel 36° 30', which, when extended to the Pacific, included all but a small fraction of what are now the States of Texas, New Mexico and Arizona, the Indian Territory, Oklahoma, and a large part of Southern California."

The arrangement of Mr. Foster's work leads him to make brief mention in the present volume of a number of topics whose fuller treatment is deferred; it will be better, therefore, to withhold judgment in regard to some general subjects until the later volumes shall have appeared. The most noticeable portions of the present volume are those devoted to discussions of the doctrine of nullification, the legality of secession, the constitutional history of the Confederate States, Reconstruction, direct taxes, and impeachment. Mr. Foster has no difficulty in demolishing the theory of nullification; but the force of his argument against the legality of secession is likely to be weakened a little, in the minds of some readers, by the attempted justification of Southern feeling on the subject (pp. 110-115). The section on the constitutional history of the Southern Confederacy, while by no means exhaustive, is a welcome addition to our rather scanty knowledge on that point. The discussion of impeachment, which fills nearly a third of the entire volume, is painstaking and thorough; in particular, the history of impeachments in the different States is here presented at length, collected, we believe, for the first time. We note two errors in this connection. On page 605 it is stated that "in Massachusetts, judges may be removed by the Governor and Council or the address of both houses of the Legislature." The passage should, of course, read "on the address," etc. In commenting (p. 637) on the absence of impeachments in Maine, it is said that "the annual election of the Governor and other State officers has made it easier to punish their misconduct by action at the polls." Maine no longer has annual elections, biennial elections having been substituted by the constitutional amendment adopted in 1879.

The dealings of Congress and the Federal Government with the Southern States during the period of Reconstruction are subjected to a searching examination. At Mr. Foster's hands the story becomes a gloomy tale of vacillation, intimidation, and fraud; but he tells it with plainness and directness, and with more than his usual force. In his opinion, "the validity of the acts of Congress" is "open to investigation," and, "in view of the language of the Constitution, the decisions of the courts on cognate questions, and the action of Congress in other respects towards the States which were the seat of the insurrection, it seems impossible to find any justification for them in law, precedent, or consistency. . . . The Reconstruction acts must consequently be condemned as unconstitutional, founded on force, not law, and so tyrannical as to imperil the liberty of the entire nation should they be recognized as binding precedents" (pp. 265-267). Even less praiseworthy is Mr. Foster's treatment of the income-tax law of 1894 and the action of the courts in reference thereto. He admits that, "now that the dust has not yet gathered upon the papers, it seems impossible for a commentator to discuss the question without bias" (pp. 422, 423); yet he yields much to prejudice, and plays the part of advocate rather than expositor, when he says (p. 421) that "the representatives of the new States in the West against whose action Gouverneur Morris had warned the other members of the Convention, combined with those of the South to oppress the States upon the North Atlantic coast"; as also, though in somewhat less degree, when he mentions (p. 423), as one "salutary effect" of the final decision, that "it has defeated an odious scheme of class-legislation. If upheld, it will be a safeguard to property from any spoliation under the guise of Federal taxation, give encouragement to a new doctrine of State rights that may be of other assistance in the future, and afford a check to waste of the national treasury. Upon the other hand it has raised an obstacle against the further reduction of an oppressive tariff. It has shorn the United States of a power that might be essential to their preservation in case of war. And it has given a blow to settled principles of constitutional construction which makes no decision of the past seem any longer secure." We hardly know whether or not the attempt (p. 422) to frame a definition of direct taxes is to be taken seriously: "In consequence of this decision the only definition of direct taxes that can be formulated with any assurance is as follows: Direct taxes are taxes on land, poll-taxes, and, as long as a majority of the Supreme Court are of the same mind, taxes on rents and general taxes upon personal property and incomes which are not confined to a special class, although with large classes of exemptions."

It remains to notice a few points on which we think there is likely to be dissent from Mr. Foster's statements. It is rather extreme to say (p. 631), in reference to impeachment, that "were the power absent, we should have no check to executive or judicial tyranny. The necessity for its existence and for caution in its exercise is one of the strongest arguments in favor of the perpetuation of the Senate." In opposition to Mr. Bryce, the author contends (p. 496, note 22) that respect for the Senate of the United States has not declined as much as has respect for the House and for State Legislatures; but thoughtful men will not be comforted by learning that he "attributes the decadence of all to the fact that of late years the country has been so fortunate as to have few political questions of sufficient gravity to withdraw the ablest minds from business enterprises and legal controversies." The statement on page 338, that "a large number of the States allow aliens to vote . . . as soon as they have declared their intention to become citizens, although they have not been naturalized," while strictly true, might better have taken account of the practice of those States which require a previous term of residence before extending the suffrage to aliens. Mr. Foster finds an illustration of the evils that result from restriction of the suffrage to a class "in the liquor and Sunday laws, with which the inhabitants of the country districts still oppress the poorer classes in New York city" (p. 348); we are not

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surprised, therefore, to find him arguing (p. 350) virtually in favor of some kind of suffrage for foreigners. A slip of rather more serious character occurs on page 162, where the text states that "it was the contention of the North that the clause in the Constitution which gave Congress power to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the Territories or other property belonging to the United States, included absolute power to regulate their domestic institutions." As Mr. Foster must know, the Constitution speaks of "Territory," not of "Territories"; and not a little of the slavery discussion in Congress from 1850 onward turned on the meaning of the word "Territory" in this particular section. Had the Constitution said "Territories," it is possible that the after history of the United States might have been somewhat different from what it was.

The list of errata is large. Among obvious misprints, we note the omission of part of a word in a title at p. 181, note 66; "Darrell" instead of Harrell, author of 'The Brooks and Baxter War' (p. 258, notes 167 and 168); a life of Clay, by *Shurz* (p. 357, note 6); *Cohen v.* Virginia (p. 270, note 6); Pollock *v. Farmer's* Loan and Trust Co. (p. 270, note 8, p 276, notes 41 and 48, p. 419, note 19); United States *v. Rees* (p. 334, note 15); Elliot's *Debate's* (p. 359, note 12), also *Elliott's* (p. 599, note 40, p. 600, note 43); Mills *v.* Green, *reserved* (p. 329, note 27), instead of *reversed;* and on page 357 the repetition at the end of the paragraph of a sentence which occurs a few lines above. The reference to Hildreth's History at page 17, note 15, should be to vol. iii., p. 46; and McPherson's 'History of Reconstruction' (not of the Rebellion) is doubtless the work intended to be cited at page 328, note 16. Tyler's 'Letters and Times of the Tylers' is quoted as "Life and Times" (p. 172, note 27); Furber's 'Precedents relating to Privileges of the Senate' is changed (p. 496, note 23) to "Precedents of Privileges in the Senate"; and the title of Montesquieu's work appears (p. 512, note 25) as 'De l'Esprit des Lois.' The name of the Kansas State printer (p. 708, note 102) should be Baker, not *Bowker*. Throughout the volume the use of "ibid." is as often a hindrance as a help to the reader; in at least one case (p. 339, note 25) it is impossible to tell what authority is referred to.

Mr. Foster's work is dedicated to Chief Justice Fuller. We doubt if the Chief Justice will appreciate the compliment any more highly for having his name dragged into the text, as is the case on page 2. We are bound to think, also, that the references to the Supreme Court (p. 278), to the practice of law in New York (p. 559), and to the value of a well-known New York daily paper (p. 205, note 97), are inappropriate in a book of this character, and had better have been omitted.

THE SUDAN AFTER GORDON.

Fire and Sword in the Sudan: A Personal Narrative of Fighting and Serving the Dervishes. 1879–1895. By Rudolf C. Slatin Pasha, C.B. Translated by Major F. R. Wingate. Illustrated. Edward Arnold. 1896. Pp. xix, 636. 8vo.

THIS is the story of an extraordinary career which in romantic incident can hardly be excelled even in fiction. Slatin's adventures began early, for while still a boy in his teens he made an extensive and dangerous journey in the eastern Sudan. At the close of the Bosnian campaign of 1878, in which he served as a lieutenant in the Austrian army, he returned to Africa at the invitation of Gen. Gordon, and was made Governor of western Darfur, and shortly after, at the age of twenty-five, Governor-General of the whole province. This post he held for nearly three years, during which he fought twenty-seven battles, and then he became the slave of an Arab who but the day before had been one of the meanest of his subjects. Eleven years he served this master, now in favor and running barefooted at his bridle-rein or sitting at his palace gate, now loaded with chains in prison, and subjected to every indignity and hardship. Then, a year ago, came the perilous flight across the desert, and to-day he is in Egypt, a pasha only forty years old, and destined perhaps again to be the ruler of these lost provinces. According to the latest accounts, he has joined the expedition for the reconquest of the Sudan.

He tells this strange story in a simple, modest way and with an apparent truthfulness which does not fail even when self-interest would prompt him to conceal the truth. His constant deception of his master and his pretended devotion to the Moslem religion are as faithfully pictured as are the Khalifa's treachery and rapacious cruelty. The value of the book, however, does not lie alone in the personal narrative, but in the fact that it is a history, as well, of the Egyptian Sudan west of the Nile from the rise of the Mahdi to the present time. Considering the multitude of details of individuals, tribes, and places, it is a remarkable account to have been written from memory, for during his captivity the author was unable to make any notes or keep any diaries.

The half-savage inhabitants of Darfur were already ripe for revolt, through the misrule and oppression of their Egyptian rulers, when Slatin became Governor of the province. All his energies, therefore, were devoted to attempts to systematize and purify the government, to remove and punish corrupt officials, and to put down incipient rebellions. The Austrian missionary, Father Ohrwalder, in his 'Ten Years' Captivity,' has described in the following passage the manner of man Slatin was and the life he led at this time:

"His powers of endurance were wonderful, and he would often be twenty four hours in the saddle, constantly fighting and with nothing to eat or drink. He slept on the bare floor or ground beside his native soldiers, and lived on dhurra soaked in water. He was just, never took bribes, generous, ever ready to assist the poor and needy, and never refused admittance to old and young who sought his help."

His devotion to his task was so entire that, on learning that he had lost the confidence of his soldiers because he was a Christian, he promptly turned Mohammedan. Had he been but a few years earlier, there can be little doubt that his rule would have been brilliantly successful, but the struggle against the Mahdi's fanatical hordes was hopeless from the outset. Tribe after tribe joined the rebels. His principal officers deserted him, and, at length, the annihilation of the Hicks Pasha expedition having destroyed the last hope of rescue, and, his ammunition being exhausted, in December, 1883, he surrendered.

The story of his captivity is a monotonous and gloomy record of suffering and misrule unenlivened by a single ray of light. The Mahdi, to whom he took an oath of allegiance, gave him to the Khalifa Abdullahi, in whose service he remained till his escape. During the siege of Khartum he was for a time the medium of communication with the garrison, but he saw nothing of the active operations. At early dawn on January 26, 1885, he was "startled by the deafening discharge of thousands of rifles and guns; this lasted for a few minutes, then only occasional rifle-shots were heard, and now all was quiet again." Knowing that an assault had been planned for that night, he waited in intense anxiety for news. At length he saw three blacks coming towards him, one of whom

"carried in his hands a bloody cloth in which something was wrapped up, and behind him followed a crowd of people weeping. The slaves had now approached my tent, and stood before me with insulting gestures; Shatta undid the cloth and showed me the head of Gen. Gordon! The blood rushed to my head and my heart seemed to stop beating; but, with a tremendous effort of self-control, I gazed silently at this ghastly spectacle. His blue eyes were half opened; the mouth was perfectly natural; the hair of his head and his short whiskers were almost quite white. 'Is not this the head of your uncle the unbeliever?' said Shatta, holding the head up before me. 'What of it?' said I quietly. 'A brave soldier who fell at his post; happy is he to have fallen; his sufferings are over.'"

Slatin reports the Mahdi as expressing regret at Gordon's death, as he had intended to convert him and then exchange him for Arabi Pasha, in the hope that "the latter would have been of assistance to him in helping him to conquer Egypt."

A striking account is given of the circumstances connected with the death of the Mahdi, which took place soon after the fall of Khartum, and the accession of the Khalifa. This man, like many Orientals who have been suddenly raised from an obscure position to great power, has shown considerable capacity as a ruler. He is not hampered, however, by obligations which bind other men. He is above all law, even of that of the Koran, as all of his actions are held to be directly inspired of God. No regard for life or considerations of justice move him. His rivals and enemies have been destroyed, and he has surrounded himself with people whose interests are identical with his own. The Arab tribe to which he belongs has been brought from Darfur to the Nile, and has either driven out or enslaved the riverine inhabitants. His rule is one of pure terrorism and his acts are those of an ignorant savage. The whole Nile fleet, for instance, consisting of some 900 vessels, small and great, was declared one day to be the property of the Government, and thousands were deprived of their means of subsistence. The coinage has become so debased that "the present dollar is merely a heavy copper coin covered over with a thin layer of silver," but the merchants are compelled to accept it as good money, under penalty, if they refuse, of the "confiscation of their property, accompanied by flogging and imprisonment." Commerce, naturally, has dwindled to comparatively nothing, and the slave-trade, especially in women, alone thrives. This, together with war, famine, and disease, is fast depopulating the country. The statement is made that 75 per cent. of the whole population of the Sudan has perished since the advent of the Mahdi, "while of the remainder the majority are little better than slaves." Nor is there any hope that this desolating rule will come to an end except through the reconquest of the Sudan by Egypt. This will not be an easy task, for the religious fervor aroused by the Mahdi has not wholly subsided, and the Khalifa strives to keep it alive by every means in his power. Five times a day the faithful are called to prayers, and, in imitation of the Mahdi, he frequently harangues them from the pulpit of the mosque, though he has but little of the eloquence or intelligence which characterized his master. At all these services, Sla-

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tin and all suspected men were compelled to be present and to kneel in the front rank of worshippers, an easy and sure way of keeping watch over them. There are now in Omdurman, the dervish capital, about 100 Christians, men and women, Greeks, Syrians, Copts, an Italian Sister, and a German.

In no part of his book does Slatin show to better advantage than in the story of his escape. It is told with great simplicity and without the slightest straining for effect, but the scenes and incidents of the flight are brought very vividly to the imagination. The long night rides; the hiding by day in the rocks exposed to the pitiless sun; the harassing delays while awaiting guides; the four-days' march bare-footed and leading the camel of his disabled guide, all are described with peculiar force. He escaped on the night of February 20, 1895, and reached Assuan on March 16. On his arrival in Cairo, the Khedive conferred upon him the title of pasha, and appointed him, with the rank of colonel, to the Intelligence Department.

Major Wingate has translated Slatin's narrative into excellent idiomatic English, the conversations being especially well done. There are some interesting and striking illustrations, a plan of Khartum and Omdurman, and a map showing the present extent of the Mahdist influence. The work is so bulky, however, as to discourage the ordinary reader, and many of the details in regard to obscure tribes are uninteresting. An abridged edition, which should contain only the personal narrative, is therefore very desirable.

A Wandering Scholar in the Levant. By David G. Hogarth, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, sometime Craven Fellow in the University of Oxford, F.S.A. With illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

"To be at once a Scholar and a Wanderer is to indulge the least congruous desires," so Mr. Hogarth tells us in his opening sentence; and a little later he writes: "If the Scholar wanders into inland Asia, he is fain to play the explorer first and the scholar second." We hear, most briefly, of the discovery of the skeleton of a dead city, the ancient Cilician pirate city Olba, of Roman camps and roads and milestones and boundary lines and ruins, of the finding of coins and seals and Hittite monuments, but no details are given; the interest lies in the discovery. Most characteristic of Turkish methods is the story of the discovery of a Hittite monument at the town of Bor in Asia Minor. Ramsay discovered it in 1882, but the owner would not sell. Finally, in 1890, she offered it to Mr. Hogarth for 500 liras, and he, being pressed for time and unable to bargain at great length, offered five for it, and finally on the second day secured it for twenty.

"We could not hope to carry off so well-known a treasure, under the very eyes of the local governor, unless prepared to pay as much in *backshish* as in purchase. . . . Making, therefore, an ostentatious virtue of necessity, we conveyed it ten miles to Nigdeh, and lodged it there in trust for his Majesty the Sultan. . . . Strolling that night in the dark over the crowded roof of the *khan*, I heard that certain Franks had tried to escape with a stone worth 10,000 liras, but had been arrested by the police and forced to disgorge! The officials themselves deprecated such wasteful generosity; and a Government Secretary approached us next day with a kind suggestion that, if our difficulty related to the conveyance of the stone to the coast, he could arrange that we should be robbed of it outside the town, and for a slight consideration recover it at the port."

Mr. Hogarth's story may be supplemented by the statement, from the Sultan's end, so to speak, that his unusual conduct in purchasing an antique monument from its owner and presenting it to the Ottoman Government instead of smuggling it out of the country rendered him *persona gratissima* at Constantinople. At the same time it strained the powers of the Ottoman Government to obtain possession of the stone, so firmly did the provincial governor hold on to it in the belief that it was of fabulous value, and the hope that he might himself have a share in the money which he supposed some one in Constantinople or on the coast was receiving for it. There is a sequel equally characteristic. It turned out that another fragment of the same monument existed in the hands of another owner. The latter offered it to Mr. Hogarth on condition that he would himself carry it away and not give it to the Government, and, when he refused, destroyed it rather than let the Government know of its existence, for fear of imprisonment and blackmail. Many valuable monuments of antiquity are destroyed in the same manner, because of the corrupt and oppressive way in which the law of antiquities is administered, at least in the provinces.

But the most interesting part of this little book is the description of land and people through the almost unknown parts of central Anatolia and along the upper Euphrates. Mr. Hogarth describes the Turk of this region as a "slow-moving, slow-thinking rustic, who limits his speech to three tenses out of the sixty-four in his language, and his interests to the price of barley. Aliens, Greek, Armenian, Circassian, thrust him on one side and take his little parcel of land by fraud or force—there is no real distinction in Anatolia. . . . In energy and intelligence he takes rank a grade below his dog, who shares his profound and not altogether causeless suspicion of strangers, but attacks more vivaciously and is reconciled more frankly." He adds, however: "One is bound to like him, if only for his courage, his simplicity, and his blind fidelity and his loyalty." The condition of the women among these Anatolian Turkish peasants is, according to his account, pitiable in the extreme; they are "mere chattels of the man, condemned to the hardest field-work and to walk while their lords ride." His ethnological observations on the origin of these Turks of Anatolia are worthy of remark. "Three parts," he says, "of the 'Turks' of Anatolia never came from Turkestan, but are children of aborigines, Carians, Galatians, Phrygians, what you will." The Turks of some regions he finds identical in type with the Armenians by and with whom they live, evidence of forced conversions in the older time such as are horrifying the world to-day. He identifies the true Turk by his inclination to wander, which displays itself, among the denizens of towns and cities, by "the practice of migrating to a *yaila* in summer." This, he says, "is the most infallible sign that a village of 'Turks' is not a village of converted aborigines."

In the old Seljukian regions, the Seljuks having been less fanatical than the Ottomans, Mr. Hogarth found more and more ancient Christian settlements. One curious Greek community he visited on an island in the Lake of Egerdir. There is "a remnant of fifty Christian families with two priests. Service is held only on the great festivals, and then in Turkish, because neither priest nor people understand any other language." "The priests told us that the families became fewer every year; the fathers could teach their children nothing about their ancestral faith, for they knew nothing themselves; the Moslems were 'eating them up.' We had to force the church door, and brush dust and mould from a vellum service-book dated 1492." Both Turks and Christians are dying out in Anatolia, according to Mr. Hogarth. The country is fertile and rich in natural resources, and the climate is salubrious, but the Government is execrable, and constantly growing worse. The hope of the future is colonization from Europe. Not that Mr. Hogarth is hostile to the Turk, however. He is decidedly friendly to him, in the usual manner of the English Tory, and deprecates Exeter Hall agitation against Turkish atrocities. Mr. Hogarth travelled up the Euphrates on his last trip in 1894, shortly before the massacre of Sassun, passing on the way the unsubdued Kurdish strongholds of the Dersim. He did not observe a reign of terror among the Armenians at that time, although there was "repression." What is ordinarily called the "Armenian question" is to him the "Kurdish question."

The last two chapters of this little book of 206 pages are devoted to Egypt and Cyprus. The whole book from beginning to end is readable, entertaining, and instructive. There are a fair map and a baker's dozen of illustrations, mostly half-tones from photographs. The volume is dedicated to Prof. Ramsay, under whose training, one would judge, Mr. Hogarth became "a wandering scholar in the Levant."

The Life of Thomas Hutchinson, Royal Governor of the Province of Massachusetts Bay. By James K. Hosmer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. 453.

In this volume Prof. Hosmer has performed a public service, inasmuch as he has turned away from recording the triumphs of a political "boss" like Samuel Adams, to do justice to a greater but unsuccessful public servant. Whoever reads the history of Massachusetts knows that the intelligence, the learning, the public and private virtues, were not monopolized by the side which won in the Revolution. In fact, as may happen in any such contest, the losing side contained by far the greater proportion of conscientious men who risked everything for a principle without a prospect of gain by victory. The loyalists of Massachusetts were not a faction overthrown for its own misdeeds, a dethroned oligarchy, but they were the quiet, substantial, conservative men, who were conscious of small restraints imposed by England on the colony and of great benefits received from her protection. Luckily, the Refugees were not men of action, and probably not one of the melancholy passengers in the fleet which left Boston for Halifax had a drop of blood upon his conscience. Hence, the Tories have been despised or pitied, but mainly forgotten, by the present generation. Of this party, Gov. Thomas Hutchinson was not only the leader but the most perfect example, and it was a wise, kindly, and patriotic task which Prof. Hosmer has brought to a satisfactory end.

As we have on various occasions discussed the life and character of Hutchinson, we shall attempt no summary at this time. The reader of this book will find a thorough narrative, written with the skill of a practised historian, master of his subject, pleased with his theme, and sympathetic in his treatment. It is not a eulogy, but a tribute paid to an honorable antagonist. As a type of the best class of New Englander at that period, Hutchinson challenges a sincere if languid admiration. As a

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citizen, a public servant, even as a crown official, he is worthy of respect, and we must regret that his native country could not retain his services. If we may venture on the comparison, fortunately not carried to so painful an ending, Hutchinson stood at a crisis where the Bell-Everett party stood in 1860, or where many, less known, at the South, stood. The very virtues of one year may seem vices the next, when the rush of events carries us far from the old landmarks into the unknown currents of the future.

Mr. Hosmer has given, on p. 308, an admirable résumé, from which we quote. After saying that Hutchinson hoped and argued for a compromise of the views of the Government and the colonists, he adds:

"These things being gained, the glorious empire of England might remain undivided, mother and daughter remaining in peace together, an affectionate headship dwelling in the one, a filial and loving concession of precedence in the other. To attain such a consummation seemed to the Governor a thing worth suffering and striving for. To bring this about, as shown by all his acts and all his words, he contended year after year, sacrificing to his aim his reputation, his fortune—at last, hardest of all, his citizenship—dying in exile, of a broken heart."

Certainly every one who wishes to obtain a true view of the beginnings of our nation will read this biography, and will learn from it that an honest devotion to principle is an honorable legacy to posterity. It by no means follows that we belittle the principles or the actions of our favorite heroes if we allow that what they did was revolutionary, and that the word implies the creation of a new standard of right and wrong. No admirer of Hutchinson will deny that the world was the gainer by his defeat, nor that our patriots discovered and utilized a new force. Looking back, we see that the revolutions of Cromwell, of William the Third, even the bloody French Revolution, were immense steps in the progress of mankind. But we cannot blind ourselves to their attendant cruelties, nor refrain from a sigh over the Cavaliers, the Jacobites, and the old noblesse. Our Tories are the corresponding examples in American history, and are at least as deserving of a little sympathy. It is to our national credit that not only was the separation effected with a minimum of personal injury, but that the conquerors are at last willing to concede the undeniable merits of their opponents.

Vacation Rambles. By Thomas Hughes, Q.C. ("Vacuus Viator"), Author of 'Tom Brown's School Days.' Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THESE letters cover a period of more than thirty years' duration. They are bright, cheery, full of animal spirits. The writer is observant, easily pleased, and can communicate to us the pleasures he himself enjoys. But time leaves nothing long the same, and its tooth is very sharp on letters of former generations unless they chance to deal with circumstances and events of special interest or to be written in a fascinating manner. There remains chiefly an element of interest in the comparison of things past and present, and in noting to what extent the writer's prophecies and anticipations have been justified by events.

The first series of letters take us to Constantinople and Athens by way of the Tyrol and the Danube and back to England by another route. Mr. Hughes's impressions in Constantinople were extremely favorable to the Turks, but even Freeman would have allowed all he claims for the Turk's personal morals, and still have maintained that his official character is "unspeakable." That, too, has its variations, and Mr. Hughes's Sultan and Vizier are now turned to dust. Some of the pictures of the French coast in this section are most agreeable and entertaining. The next section following is made up of home letters written from America in 1870, all the others having been written to the *Spectator*. These home letters are more free and easy than the others, and they have the attraction which always inheres in books and letters that enable us to see ourselves as other see us. Mr. Hughes was as much impressed as Matthew Arnold with the kindness showered upon him, and describes himself as "a spoilt child," and very naturally, because in 1870 the recollection of his services to America in the civil war was still fresh. These letters are extremely personal, and the substitution of initials and dashes for the full names of people is the thinnest possible disguise. A good many readers will be much pleased with the fine things said about them, and few will be grieved by the injurious comments. Col. Higginson's share in this feast is mixed of fat and lean, whatever the exact meaning Mr. Hughes intended to convey: "He was very fascinating to my mind and the most refined man in manners and look I have yet met, but I should say decidedly a cracked fellow in the good sense." There is about the usual number of misspellings of American proper names that we find in English books. Field for Fields, Hoare for Hoar, and even "Jef Davies" for "Jeff Davis" in the John Brown song. Naushon Island, where Mr. Hughes enjoyed with uncommon zest his hospitable reception and the company assembled, is disguised as "Nashont." His comparative impressions of Philadelphia were as flattering as Arnold's. He is less critical than Arnold of our eating and drinking, and does not express the English preference for tepid over cold water on the table, if any such is his.

A very different kind of interest from that attaching to this series of letters belongs to the series "America—1880 to 1887." These are concerned mainly with the Rugby settlement in Tennessee, and are very graphic in their accounts of life and scenery in the Cumberland Mountains. Mr. Hughes's story of a placard over the piano at a favorite resort of Texas cowboys is a variant of a more piquant form—the scene, a Western church; the placard, "Don't shoot the organist," etc. Still another series is exceedingly diversified, with the emphasis on the coast towns of England and France. One of the longest letters here deals with Lourdes, describing the place pretty carefully, and treating the miracle-working of the spring described by Zola as "a soup of microbes" with as much sympathy as any Roman Catholic could desire. Nothing is more becoming to Mr. Hughes in this volume than his way of leaving off. He reserves for his last chapter his address in Boston, October 11, 1870, "John to Jonathan," as clear a statement of the relations of England to our civil war as we have ever seen. It is quite as good reading now as then. In another letter Mr. Hughes says of England: "I believe that on the whole there is not, nor ever was, a nation that kept a more active conscience, or tried more honestly to do the right thing according to its lights." This is particularly interesting at the present time as the opinion of as good a friend as America has ever had on English soil, who did more for us in the day of our distress than some of our inverted Anglomaniacs could ever do if they should do their best—and whose death has just been announced.

Iranisches Namenbuch. Von Ferdinand Justi. Gedruckt mit Unterstützung der Königlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften. Marburg: N. G. Elwert'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung. 1895.

IN this book of 526 quarto pages, arranged in double columns, Prof. Justi has treated 4,490 Iranian proper names borne by 9,450 persons. Considering that each name and person is placed by references (sometimes by several), an idea may be formed of the amount of labor which the book has cost. The interesting Introduction discusses the origin of names, and also classifies them. Prof. Justi finds that they are derived for the most part from literature, being original only in a subordinate sense. As to the earliest of Iranian proper names, they lingered as the echoes of the 'Zend Avesta' long after their meaning as words had disappeared; but, after the Conquest, Arabian names ran both the Zoroastrian and the Persian ones hard. So, later New-Persian names, many of them, were the result of the great epic poem of the 'Shah Nameh.' The same thing has happened elsewhere in mediæval and even modern times. Since 1566 and 1614, Romish saints have supplanted older heroes in Germany, and in Italy the Knights of the Round Table found many namesakes. So in England, under Cromwell (Justi recalls Barebones with his compound "Christian" name), the Old Testament poured out its quaint titles, and within this last half-century Tennyson has been largely responsible for the readoption of beautiful Old English words, while Wagner's operas have given us Elsas and the like.

We may mention, in passing, one curious device which is reported at least in poetry; it could, however, hardly be so extended as to be called a custom, says Firdusi. Prince Feridun (Avestic Thraetaona) kept his young children nameless. First he waited till their characters had developed, and then he thought they might be safer unchristened. An unnamed princeling avoids "insult" and "tattle." No one could "call" after a child without a name, and no one could malign it. The same principle is partly apparent in "throne-names," which often displaced originals. We know more, for instance, of Ochus and Codomannus than we do of either Darius the First or Darius the Second. The same practice had appeared in Egypt and Assyria.

To collect historical and mythical names from Iranian lore was imperative upon some one, but few are aware that in the proper names of human beings we have often preserved to us our only trace of words that have otherwise vanished, as of gods which are little remembered. As to the latter, we know only of an original polytheism among the ancestors of Israel from their first (?) name for God, which is the plural Elohim; and who would remember how lately the moon was worshipped if it were not for Monday, or that Tiv exists in Tuesday, Woden in Wednesday, etc.? As to lost words, or word-roots, we have, in Ariabigna, "The Glory of the Aryans," and in Baga-bigna, "The Glory of God," the sole signs of the root *bhaigv* in Iranian. Sabiktas, "Blessed with Glory," and Dibiktas (?) show the participle of the past. In Frata-karâ, "The Maker of Fire," the oldest name of the Kings of Persia, we have again a past participle, this time of an Iranian *fra;* so in Fratagune, "Color of Fire," and Frataphernes, "Fire's Glory." In Codomannus we have an Iranian *mannus*=man, etc. Another feature in the character of names is the clear evidence which they afford as to national traits actually present or once existing in forgotten ancestors.

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Take even the "horse-names" of Iran, they point beyond a question to the well-accredited opinion that Persia, whose cavalry was the terror of the Romans, was the cradle of horse-culture. Even a king could bear the personal or family name of Vishtasp, "Horse-owner." Pourushaspa (Zarathushtra's father) meant "Many Horses"; Aurvadaspa was "Fleet Horses" (cp. also early English Hengist and Horsa). So Ushtra shows camel-breeding; Frashaoshtra meant "Quick Camels"; Zarathushtra, "Sorrel Camels." Again, of arms: Berezyarshti was "High Lances"; Frayadratha, "Swift Chariot"; Skârayadratha, "Leaping Chariots"; Zairivairi, "Yellow Armor" (polished bronze), Bastavairi, "Woven Mail," and Yukhtavairi, "Jointed Armor"; Azad-feroz, "Born for Victory" (or Prince of Victory); Harpates, "the All-shielder," and Satrabates, "Shield of Empire."

Coming to religious and moral conceptions, we have only to follow the list of the Ameshaspends of the Gâthâs to trace an interesting development. The name of God himself was used quite simply as a proper name. Ormizd is Ahura Mazda spoken as one; and in the inscriptions of Persepolis and Murghâb we see the actual process of this change; Aura and Mazda occur once (and once only), each separately inflected; everywhere else the names form one word inflected at the end. Ormizd is shown by Justi to have been used as a name by persons known in history no less than forty-seven times; it survives even in modern use. Is not this singularly exceptional if not unique? We have plenty of names with "God" in them, but here is "God" without relief. It was and is used in profoundest reverence. In compounds we have it, as in Ohramazd-dat, "God's Creature," and Ormizdukht, "God-daughter," etc., more in the common line. Then Bahman is Vohu-manah, the "Good Mind," God's first or second attribute; Justi gives us twenty-two instances of the word in history as a proper name. In compounds we have Bahman-dukht, "The Good Mind's Daughter," and Bahmanyar, "The Good Mind's Friend," etc.

The next and not less prominent divine attribute is the Holy Order of the Law. This appears in Astvad-ereta, "The Embodied Righteousness," Ukhshyad-ereta, "Increasing Righteousness," Artavardiya, "Strong through Righteousness." Khshathra, "the kingly power," which was the third attribute, appears in Khshayârsha, which is Xerxes, "The Right Ruling," but more literally in Arta-Khshathra, which is Artaxerxes, "King of Righteousness." (Ardashîr is the same word in a later form.) Spenta Aramaiti, "Holy Zeal," the fourth Ameshaspend, occurs in Ispandarmad, while Ameretatât, Immortality, the fifth, comes out in Vardanoyis, "Increasing the Deathless," and Sahakanus, "Immortal Friend." A final optimism is familiar in the Avestic Haurvatât (Sanskrit Sarvatâti), which is "Universal Weal"; it becomes Khurdâd in the proper name. Azad-bakht, "Born for Fortune" (or "Prince of Fortune"), and Shîgufteh-bakht, "Wonderful Fortune," are hopeful in the selfsame key. In the matter of specific religious expression, ritual, the sacramental fire is a striking feature, and the name Anosbadar, "Unquenched Fire," may show at once the interesting belief that the altar-flame brought down from Heaven to Zoroaster has never failed. This belief still lingers; and Oharamazd-ature, "Fire of Ahura," shows that the element was sacrosanct indeed; while Artasher Atashe, "Holy Fire King," shows "Church and State" (the King as a priest). Buland-Akhtar, "Lofty Star," and Farkhundeh-akhtar, "Luck-Bringing Star," attest astrology. Mihradar, "Fire of Mithra," recalls the post-gâthic sun-god.

Following upon this extensive collection of proper names come tables of descent (pp. 390-479), the most important mythical dynasties being treated as well as the historical. The iconography of the book is indexed in two pages, containing 296 names of kings, satraps, pretenders, officials, warriors, magicians, persons indefinable, and women, whose portraits appear on stones or in statues. In pages 484-520 we have a valuable analysis of etymologies, and pages 521-526 treat of the affixes. Immense labor has been saved in this work to all who wish to have their citations sound and serious. Several languages have been examined in the course of the formidable undertaking, and the result does honor to the Academy of Sciences, whose liberal subvention has placed the book within our reach.

The Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain. By S. H. Jeyes. [Public Men of To-day.] Frederick Warne & Co.

Mr. Jeyes's volume is a brief account of the public career of Mr. Chamberlain seen by a friendly eye. His hero, a man sixty years of age, has already played many parts, and played them all skilfully. A Radical, a Socialist, a Liberal, a Home-Ruler, a Dissentient Liberal, a Liberal Unionist, and finally a Conservative, he has boxed the compass of opinion, and yet has maintained a steadily growing prestige, so that his hold on power seems with time to be increasing. As man of business, administrator, orator, and diplomat he has been equally successful. He has won his success, too, at times in the teeth of violent opposition. He has been dreaded as a "Red," denounced as a traitor, laughed at as a would-be courtier; but, through all, his weight and influence in public affairs have steadily grown, until he is to-day one of the half-dozen foremost men in England. Mr. Jeyes's volume gives a brief and readable account of his career; but evidently the time has not yet come for a full explanation of it. Possibly there is no mystery; perhaps Mr. Chamberlain is nothing more nor less than appears on the surface—a versatile man of business, with the knack of foreseeing the drift of public opinion that marks the great opportunist.

His biographer thinks that the one dominating object of his life is "his desire to improve the daily lot of the poor, and to use legislation for the purpose of helping and protecting those who cannot help or protect themselves"; but the only proof of this is that he began life as a radical with all sorts of schemes for remedying the ills of life, which have been gradually more and more relegated to the background. When people talk about Socialism in England, they continually overlook the fact that many things elsewhere looked upon as natural functions of government, and in this country taken as a matter of course, were not long since in England regarded as doubtful novelties. Mr. Chamberlain, who is never slow to take advantage of any opening afforded him by his opponents, recognizes the opportunity for confusion in a word capable of such various definitions, and boldly declares that he is a Socialist because "the poor-law is Socialism; the education act is Socialism; the greater part of municipal work is Socialism; and every kindly act of legislation by which the community has sought to discharge its responsibilities and its obligations to the poor, is Socialism." This is quite a mistake. We support criminals in prison, but no one calls it Socialism. Most cities in the United States have a municipal water supply, but nobody ever regarded the Croton water-works as having socialistic tendencies. Public schools are based on the necessity of diffusing knowledge among those who are to be citizens. Socialism means something very different from advancing a confessedly public object by taxation. It implies some attack on those customs and institutions on which our civilization rests—liberty, property, contract, and marriage. Does Mr. Chamberlain wish to subvert any of these? His question, "What *ransom* will property pay for the security it enjoys?" was distinctly socialistic; ransom paid by property for security is nothing more nor less than blackmail, to which there is no other limit than the pleasure of the person who fixes the sum demanded. If Mr. Chamberlain's opinions of to-day were those which he seemed to represent in putting this question, he would be one of the most dangerous public men alive. But are they the same? This volume seems to make it highly improbable that they are.

The Growth of the Brain: A Study of the Nervous System in Relation to Education. By Henry Herbert Donaldson, Professor of Neurology in the University of Chicago. [The Contemporary Science Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. 8vo, pp. 374.

Within very moderate compass is here presented much important and interesting information from many sources as to the structure, development, and functions of the brain. There are seventy-seven illustrations, original or from standard works. The most notable feature of the volume is the number of tables embodying statistics respecting the weight, number, and condition of the brain and its visible or microscopic constituents at various ages and under different circumstances. The following topics are discussed with more or less fulness: the growth of the nervous system compared with that of the body; the interpretation of brain weight in terms of cell structure; the early limitation of the number of nerve-cells; the peculiar relation in this system between increase in size and in organization; the large though variable number of cells which have but slight importance in the final structure; the dominance of nutritive conditions; the wide diffusion of nerve impulses; the incompleteness of repose; the reflex nature of all responses; the native character of mental powers; and the comparative insignificance of formal education.

These are serious matters, and Dr. Donaldson's systematic and thoughtful consideration of them is worthy of attention even when some of his views may not commend themselves to us. The following are a few of the passages worthy to be quoted:

"The aim at the moment, then, is to determine what limitations anatomy places to the educational powers, and thus to obtain a rational basis from which to attack many of the pedagogical problems" (p. 342).

"On neurological grounds, therefore, nurture is to be considered of much less importance than nature, and in that sense the capacities that we most admire in persons worthy of remark are certainly inborn rather than made" (p. 344).

"The demonstration here of the loss of energy in learning what needs only to be unlearned is very striking, and if one experience produces such an effect, it is not difficult to understand how habits early formed and long cultivated become so difficult of eradication" (p. 347).

"Knowledge comes, for the hindrances to knowledge are in a large measure from without; but wisdom, as heretofore, continues to linger,

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and still to occupy its place as the rare performance of a balanced brain" (p. 365).

Professor Donaldson hopes that his work may be useful to parents, teachers, and physicians, and that, "as a result of their demands, there may be supplied an account far more extensive and luminous than his own." At present it is to be feared that any failure upon the part of many educated people to profit by the information he offers, must be ascribed less to any want of desirable clearness and completeness in this work than to the non-existence of an adequate basis of facts, names, and ideas in their own minds. If Prof. W. W. Goodwin was even approximately correct in declaring in these columns that "whatever study is to be pursued with effect must have its foundations laid before the age of fifteen," then it is not enough that (as in at least one large American university) all undergraduates outside the technical courses supplement the instruction upon the brain by actual dissection of the organ; work of this sort, even more thorough, must constitute an absolute prerequisite for admission to college.

Dr. Donaldson uses few technical terms, and the proportion of mononyms is notably large. On the other hand, since *brain* is a component of the title and distinctly preferred in the index, it is not easy to account for the frequency of the ponderous *encephalon*, especially in the plural. Why, also, the indiscriminate employment of *fissure* and *sulcus*, *gyrus* and *convolution*? Due recognition is given the achievements of Dana, Hodge, Lombard, and other American neurologists. The author's own valuable observations upon the brain of the blind deaf-mute Laura Bridgman might well have occupied more space. The index is not full enough, and a summary of each chapter would have been acceptable.

The Worship of the Romans Viewed in Relation to the Roman Temperament. By Frank Granger, D.Litt. London: Methuen & Co. 1895.

THE object of this book is, as Dr. Granger puts it, "to interpret some of those thoughts which lay nearer to the average Roman mind than the Greek elements in its [*sic*] literature." By these "thoughts" he means a set of beliefs or practices which were closely bound up with the religion of the Romans as we find it, and he wishes "to point out the manner in which they are related to each other, and to justify them as a necessary factor in the awakening of the religious sentiment." After an introductory chapter which is entitled "The Roman Spirit," but which turns out to be rather of the nature of a homily to the English on the subject how best to govern India, we are hurried, without any transition whatever, from Calcutta to the first of this group of beliefs—namely, that in dreams and apparitions. Hence we pass to the "Soul and its Companions" (a title suggestive of 'Sintram,' but we find no dread Little Master here, only the *genius*, deified ancestors and other spirits); next, to "The World Around," by which is meant the supernatural world. Then follow accounts of Nature- (including of course Tree-) Worship, Primitive Thought, Roman Magic, Divination and Prophecy, Holy Places; and the book closes with chapters on the Divine Victim and the Sacred Drama. It will be evident to the elect that we have here an attempt to bring together into a small volume (of not much more than 300 pages) what may be called the folk-lore of religion, a subject which has of late years received learned consideration in many German works, and in English by scholars like Fraser, Baring-Gould, Lang, and others.

Not much that is new to students of comparative religion will be found in the book. It is in general a mere account of the said beliefs (Dr. Granger is *not*, by the way, possessed by a corn-demon, for which we are grateful), strung together in a pleasantly discursive style—perhaps too discursive for some scholars, while we fear that the author's habit of taking much for granted may frighten off the uninstructed. He has a way of beginning a story, drifting off (Herodotus-like) into something else, too often into sermons of the sort indicated above, and then coming back to the main thread only to drop it (*not* like Herodotus) as being too trite for further handling. And yet, as we have just said, his style is pleasant, and the topics which he has chosen to treat have always been attractive to men. To this day all are fascinated by the supernatural and the unknown.

The Roman lived in a world peopled, as he fancied, with spirits—his *genius*, the wraiths of the dead, whether showing themselves as ghosts by night or as noonday demons in the light—and rendered fearful by the terrors of the evil eye in man or by the prodigies and portents of the gods. But in one point, at least, he had the advantage of us. His was an age when, no matter what the torturing doubt, there was always somebody at hand who knew how the thing really was and what must be done to solve the doubt or to avert the danger. Sound and withal amusing is Dr. Granger on the great principle of primitive philosophy, that each occurrence has one cause, and but one only. We may perhaps put it in this fashion: You have a mysterious ailment and don't know what the reason is; you are worried by a recurring dream; you have seen a ghost or the "astral body" of a living friend; Pan has met you in the woods. You, the modern, are helpless because you don't believe that there is anybody who knows what it all really means. But the Roman had somebody—or thought he had, which, after all, is having. He went to his medicine man of the appropriate variety and was by him made whole. Something had been left undone, or something done which ought not to have been done—it was always *one* thing (a great comfort!), easy to understand and simple (though sometimes expensive) to expiate. The finding out what this thing was, and the doing of it on the one hand, or paying the price of the past action on the other, formed the main business of the Roman religion.

Dr. Granger, in his last chapter, may have been upon the track of this great truth; but, having mentioned the hymns which were sung at festivals, and having committed himself to the somewhat surprising statement that Horace was one of the first Romans to write poetry for such occasions, he is naturally led away to descant upon the lyrics of the Augustan bard, and all of a sudden the book ends, in delightfully consistent fashion, with the suggestion that children of succeeding generations may have often sung these lyrics in their walks along the country lanes. No, not even here ends; for it is added that they were perhaps "set to plain and strenuous music like that of the Delphic hymn." Delphic indeed, and Delphic the utterance! Still, we love it, for "we too were born in Arcadia."

But it would be unfair to have treated this book altogether in a sprightly—we hope not in a too flippant—vein. It has in it much that is useful to know as well as interesting to read. And among other valuable suggestions of Dr. Granger's, he is to be congratulated upon his idea that the masks of ancestors, the *imagines*, were a survival of an original practice of preserving the actual heads of the deceased. He cites as a parallel the preservation of the skulls of the dead, each in its own wooden case, in a certain church in Brittany. It seems strange that he should not also have recalled the very similar custom of the Issedones described by Herodotus (iv. 26). The publishers, too, deserve thanks for the clear black ink upon its good white surface, and above all for the light body of the paper used, which makes the book a joy and not a burden to hold. But the index is wholly inadequate.

Mind and Motion, and *Monism*. By the late George John Romanes. Longmans. 1895. Pp. 170.

WHEN Mr. Romanes began this book entitled 'Monism' (to which a lecture on 'Mind and Motion' is prefixed) by saying that it is established to the satisfaction of every physiologist that there is an absolutely exact correspondence between every mental fact and some concomitant fact of the brain, he exaggerated. There are physiologists enough who regard the correspondence, whether absolutely exact or not, as limited to feeling and sensation corresponding to excitation of nerve-cells, and to volition corresponding to nervous discharges, while maintaining that there are in the mind general ideas which correspond only to potentialities in the brain, not to any actual facts. However, having put out of court all who do not pin their faith to the invariability and exactitude of the correspondence between mental and material events, Mr. Romanes proceeded at once to divide believers in that proposition into Spiritualists, Materialists, and Monists, thus furnishing the last word with one signification the more. Monism originally meant the doctrine that mental phenomena and material phenomena have one substratum; and monism was said to have three forms, Idealism, or the doctrine that material phenomena are but a species of ideas; Materialism, or the doctrine that mental phenomena are merely a special variety of those facts which lie at the bottom of material phenomena; and Neutral Monism, which was described as the doctrine that material phenomena and mental phenomena are equally universal, and merely different aspects of any facts. The monism of Mr. Romanes seems to be a variety either of materialism or of this neutral monism; for he says, in the introductory essay, that mind and motion are substantially identical. Thus, of the three elements which compose the physical universe, to wit, matter (or inertia and identity), motion, and energy, he holds that one is coextensive with mind. In the old triad, he has displaced Idealism to make way for Spiritualism, which was always held, and which he himself held, to be a dualistic and, therefore, not a monistic doctrine, though as monistic he classes it. But he does not mean spiritualism in general; for of spiritualists and others who do not accept his first axiom of the absolute perfection of the correspondence between mental and cerebral events, he takes no notice whatsoever. Upon this point he is explicit (p. 42).

What Mr. Romanes wishes to prove is, that the hypothesis that all material motion has a feeling, and *vice versa*, besides accounting for sufficient facts to render it reasonable, leads to the proposition that all "causality" (could not this antiquated notion have been replaced by something more scientific?) is, on its inside, volition, and gives room for, as he at first says,

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but subsequently (for he never gave the work the revision necessary to make its doctrine quite consistent) that it "sanctions" and almost necessitates, the assumption of a universal mind of the world (which he calls Theism), and, finally, that it reinstates the freedom of the will, and, with that, moral responsibility. Many readers will seem to see in the book the phenomenon of a man setting out from materialistic assumptions, but led, under the influence of a broad study of nature, toward idealistic conclusions, and going, at last, so far as to say that the ultimate reality is "either mental or something greater." Others will say, with some justice, that it is the work of an invalid, so weak that pages are occupied with reasonings and logical diagrams to show that a universal affirmative proposition cannot be converted *simpliciter*, and with another diagram altogether worthy of Dr. Fludd (except that it is a rough woodcut, instead of a beautiful copper-plate), and full of the most puerile propositions. The style, however, is as strong and clear as anything Romanes ever wrote, if not more so. That, if he had recovered from his illness, he would, by this time, have been advocating an idealistic theory of the evolution of all things, including the laws of causation, there is hardly room to doubt. Such is the theory that the great advocate of Darwinian ideas would inevitably have adopted as the fittest survivor in the struggle of theories.

Professor Koch on the Bacteriological Diagnosis of Cholera, Water-Filtration, and Cholera, and the Cholera in Germany during the Winter of 1892–93. Translated by George Duncan, M.A., with Prefatory Note by W. T. Gairdner, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: William R. Jenkins. 1895.

NOTWITHSTANDING the disappointment that the scientific world and the general public experienced in the failure of his promises for the relief of consumption by inoculation, Prof. Koch remains a great authority on all bacteriological subjects connected with the recognition and prevention of disease. The three essays of the title-page of this book give collectively his personal views on the spread and the restraint of that pestilence through which, by the discovery of the comma bacillus, he first acquired fame. The control of epidemics, like the management of any condition affecting large areas or many people, requires popular coöperation; and it is by the absorption of such teachings that the popular mind is prepared to assist in the work. Koch believes that the comma (or cholera) bacillus is the efficient cause of that disease. A few deny it that power, but nearly all recognize in its presence a clear indication of the epidemic variety, which, under certain aspects, cannot be distinguished clinically from cholera morbus or cholera infantum. At least to believe that it is pathognomonic is to be on the safe side.

It has long been recognized by epidemiologists that the study of any outbreak means the detection of the first case, either at or after its occurrence. But the recognition of undeveloped cholera is a clinical impossibility, although such undeveloped cases furnish the sparks that light the greater flame of general infection. It is here that the bacteriologist is at his best. When the tornado strikes the ship, every sailor realizes it. It is the master's province to foretell the storm while the disturbance is yet recognizable only by his barometer. Koch expresses the true principle of all this work when he says: "The proper field of bacteriological work, however, is the beginning and the end of an epidemic, when all depends on the correct judging of each individual case and the swiftest possible prevention of danger to the neighborhood." Almost every cholera epidemic is like an extremely flattened ellipse whose vertices are the first and the last cases. Upon determining just where the lines that enclose the disease begin and cease may depend the safety of the immediate and of the proximate communities. Bacteriology will do this; and the moral for us is to have enough skilled bacteriologists and equipped laboratories to render an intelligent and immediate verdict. Early measures of control may thus be instituted without waiting for the epidemic to become epidemic in the one instance, and the unsuspected case, held as a precaution, may be restrained from ignorantly spreading the disease in the other. For it is well established now that a person may appear and may feel perfectly well, and yet be an actual disseminator of cholera germs. Certain and immediate recognition of the disease can be made in about 50 per cent. of the cases, when the excreta are examined by competent observers; and in every instance it can be determined in from six to ten hours by means of the peptone (supplemented by the gelatine) plate-cultivation. In relation to detecting the cause *en route* when water-borne, there is no pretence that cholera-infected streams will always yield bacteria to the investigator. The probable explanation of this is not that there are no bacteria in the water, but that their distribution has excluded them from the particular specimen examined.

The essays on water filtration and on cholera in the winter of '92–'93 are excellent examples of clear description and logical reasoning. An underlying motive running through the whole book is antagonism toward, or defence against, the attacks of the Pettenkofer or Munich school, which teaches a theory of localism with special reference to groundwater and little regard to bacteria. The controversy is not always in good taste, and there is an expenditure of energy that appears more personal than scientific in motive. Nevertheless the book is a good contribution to the literature of public health, which those charged with its care as engineers and civil officers, as well as physicians, may well consult, and the translation is in idiomatic and most readable English.

A Japanese Marriage. By Douglas Sladen. London: Black; New York: Macmillan. Pp. 401.

MR. DOUGLAS SLADEN'S 'Japanese Marriage' would not need to be spoken of had not this writer, by a certain straightforwardness and naturalness of style, gained an attention not usually given to books which exhibit such full measure of ignorance and coarseness, not to add effrontery. There was no need of resorting to what the world knows as fiction, for his former books and articles on Japan illustrated to a sufficient extent the writer's power of producing pure and silly inventions. In this volume, as usual, the Japanese is invariably a "Jap" (no other respectable writer on Japan ever repaid the country's hospitality by this impertinence), and the foreigner is incapable of speaking except in copious slang; but we have also such passages as the following (p. 166), which the former volumes have hardly equalled:

"Bryn's newly formed passion for Philip [she is his wife's sister, and lives in their household]—if one may use the word where the question of sexual feeling did not enter—would have carried her through a much more severe trial. She thought the grandest sight she had ever seen in her life was Philip, unarmed, and in his night clothes, first hurling one sworded assailant over the banisters . . . and then tearing the life out of the other's throat. . . . There was no more taint of jealousy than there was of sexualism in her passion for Philip. She did not "desire his caresses, though they gave her a dog's pleasure."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. A Fight with Fate. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Armstrong, E. Lorenzo de' Medici, and Florence in the *Fifteenth Century*. *Putnams.* $1.50.
Berringer, Mrs. Oscar. The New Virtue. Edward Arnold. $1.
Björnson, B. A Happy Boy. Macmillan. $1.25.
Blackwell, Alice S. Armenian Poems, Rendered into English Verse. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Booth, Charles. Life and Labor of the People in London. Vol. VII. Population Classified by Trades. Macmillan. $3.
Crockett, S. R. Cleg Kelly, Arab of the City. Appletons. $1.50.
Curtis, H. H. Voice-Building and Tone-Placing. Appletons. $2.
Del Mar, Alexander. The Science of Money. 2d ed., revised. Macmillan. $2.25.
Durège, Prof. H. Elements of the Theory of Functions of a Complex Variable. Philadelphia: G. E. Fisher and I. J. Schwatt.
Emerson, R. W. Two Unpublished Essays. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Judith, the Money-Lender's Daughter. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co.
Field, Eugene. The House: An Episode in the Lives of *Reuben Baker, Astronomer, and his Wife Alice*. Scribners. $1.25.
Gissing, George. Sleeping Fires. Appletons. 75c.
Greene, Rev. F. D. The Rule of the Turk. Putnams. 75c.
Hatton, Joseph. When Greek Meets Greek. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hearn, Lafcadio. Kokoro: Hints and Echoes of Japanese Inner Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Holman, Prof. H. Education. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
In a Silent World: The Love Story of a Deaf Mute. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75c.
Ingle, Edward. Southern Sidelights. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Jacks, William. Robert Burns in Other Tongues. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Jerram, C. S. The Ion of Euripides. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Johnston, Henry. Doctor Congalton's Legacy. Scribners. $1.25.
Lawton, W. C. Art and Humanity in Homer. Macmillan. 75c.
Lee, Albert. Tommy Toddles. Harpers. $1.25.
Lemcke, Mrs. Gesine. How to Live Well on Twenty-five Cents a Day. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c
Maclaren, Rev. Alexander. The Beatitudes, and Other Sermons. London: Alexander & Shepheard; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Manual of Statistics, 1896. New York: C. H. Nicoll. $3.
Martin, A. S. On Parody. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Maher, Marshall. Lancashire Idylls. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Mears, Mary M. Emma Lou—Her Book. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Meynell, Alice. The Rhythm of Life, and Other Essays. London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Morrow, Josiah. Life and Speeches of Thomas Corwin. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson & Co. $3.50.
Overall, J. W. A Catechism of the Constitution of the United States. New York: The Author.
Price, W. J. Pope's Iliad (Books I., VI., XXII., and XXIV.). Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Ribeiro, A. B Sonho no Carcere: Dramas da Revolução de 1893 no Brazil. Rio de Janeiro: Casa Mont'-Alverne.
Ridge, W. P. The Second Opportunity of Mr. Staplehurst. Harpers. $1.25.
Ridley, Annie E. Frances Mary Buss, and her Work for Education. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Roberts, C. G. D. Earth's Enigmas. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Roberts, W. Book-Verse. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Armstrong. $1.25.
Russell, Dora. A Hidden Chain. Rand, McNally & Co.
Sala, G. A. The Thorough Good Cook. Brentanos. $4.
Scollard, Clinton. Hills of Song. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Sellhac, Léon de. Le Monde Socialiste: Groupes et Programmes. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Smith, Gertrude. Dedora Heywood. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75c.
Snaith, J. C. Mistress Dorothy Marvin. Appletons. $1.
Stackpole, Rev. E. S. Prophecy; or, Speaking for God. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Sudermann, Hermann. Magda. [Sock and Buskin Library.] Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.
Tarbell, Ida M. Madame Roland: A Biographical Study. Scribners. $1.50.
The Danvers Jewels and Sir Charles Danvers. Harpers. $1.
The Life and Letters of George John Romanes. Written and Edited by his Wife. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Thibaut, George. The Vedânta-Sûtras. [Sacred Books of the East. Vol. XXXVIII.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Thurston, I. T. Boys of the Central: A High-School Story. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co.
Vivekananda, Swami. Eight Lectures on Karma Yoga. Brentanos. $1.
Vogüé, E. M. de. Devant le Siècle. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Wegmann, Edward. The Water-Supply of the City of New York. 1658–1895. John Wiley & Sons.
Wheatley, H. B. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. Vol. VII. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Willoughby, W. W. An Examination of the Nature of the State. Macmillan. $3.
Wordsworth, Dora. Journal of a Few Months' Residence in Portugal and Glimpses of the South of Spain. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

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